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LABOR REVIEW

UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR • BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS



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In this issue...

JANUARY 1940

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Woman Workers and Family Support • Agreement Wage-Adjustment Provisions • Small-claims Courts • Trend of Child Labor

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MONTHLY **LABOR REVIEW**

UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR • BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

***** + HUGH S. HANNA, EDITOR + *****

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This Issue in Brief

Earnings in Dyeing and Finishing.

That wage earners in the textile dyeing and finishing industry are generally higher paid than those in other branches of textile manufacturing is indicated by a study by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. In 1938, the average earnings of workers employed in the dyeing and finishing of cotton, silk, and rayon were 54.5 cents an hour. Although more than one-fourth of the workers earned less than 42.5 cents, only 2.9 percent were paid under 30 cents, and less than 1 percent received below 25 cents. On the other hand, there was a fairly generous scattering of employees in the higher-earnings classes. Page 183.

French Wartime Measures.

Fulfillment of the production requirements of France during the war is sought by various measures for coordination and utilization of the labor supply. A basic law of July 11, 1938, provided for the requisitioning of both industry and labor in the event of war, and later decrees have established the conditions under which labor can be requisitioned, as well as safeguards for the rights of labor. Committees have been formed to deal with different phases of the situation created by the war. Page 45.

Small-Claims Courts.

Small-claims courts were evolved in order to deal speedily and simply with claims too small to be feasible in the regular courts. Their success in this particular field and the low cost to the plaintiff have been responsible for the spread of this type of tribunal. An article on page 16 discusses the difficulties involved in the establishment of a small-claims court.

Child Labor.

Fewer children under 16 years of age left school for work in 1938 than in either 1937 or 1936, and a continuing decrease is shown for the first half of 1939. These findings, based on reports of employment certificates issued in a large area in the United States, bear out the experience of the past decade, that fluctuations in child labor follow those in general employment except when the direction has been reversed by State or Federal legal restrictions. Page 28.

Conditions in Union Bakeries.

The average hourly wage rate of union bakery workers in 60 principal cities of the United States was \$0.769 on June 1, 1939. This represented an increase of 1.2 percent over June 1, 1938. Nearly a fourth of the union members, for whom both 1938 and 1939 reports were received, had rate increases during the year.

The average maximum workweek provided in the union agreements was 41.6 hours. Only 2 percent of the membership had any changes in their weekly hour scales during the year. Page 195.

Youth Commission's Work Program.

In view of the world crisis and the inevitably slow adjustment of business to existing conditions, the American Youth Commission concludes in a recent report that the gap in numerous communities and States between the number of jobs for young people and the number of young people is very great. Trends in population and general industrial changes, aggravated by heavy and prolonged unemployment among gainful workers in all age groups have resulted in a

generation of young people which includes an extraordinarily large proportion with no training or work experience. Page 71.

British Emergency Measures.

To insure the most economic use of available manpower for the duration of the war, the British Government has adopted a number of legislative measures and employers and employees have modified certain voluntary agreements. Employers may not engage or rehire labor without governmental approval, employees in specified reserved occupations may not be removed for national defense service, and workers called for defense may not be dismissed and must be reinstated by their employers when discharged. The Government also has broad powers affecting labor under the terms of the Emergency Powers (Defense) Act of 1939. Page 52.

Woman Workers and Family Support.

About one-tenth of the women in gainful work are the sole support of their families, and approximately one-third combine the duties and re-

sponsibilities of the position of homemaker with the job of wage earner. This and other facts regarding woman workers and family support were shown by a study, made by the U. S. Women's Bureau, of the original 1930 Census of Occupations schedules of three cities considered to be representative of urban districts throughout the country. Page 1.

Wage-Adjustment Provisions.

Of the 7,000 current agreements on file with the Bureau of Labor Statistics, 95 percent make no provision for short-time wage adjustments during the life of the agreement. Unions have contended that formulas of adjustment, based on cost of living, prices of commodities, etc., tend to be deterrents to gradually improved living standards or may even cause living standards to be lowered, since the workers may be forced to bear the brunt of depressed business conditions or managerial inefficiency. Some agreements, however, contain provisions calling for either permissive or automatic plans of wage adjustment. Page 6.

MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW

FOR JANUARY 1940

WOMAN WORKERS AND FAMILY SUPPORT

By MARY E. PIDGEON and MARGARET T. METTERT, *U. S. Women's Bureau*

ABOUT one-tenth of the women in gainful work are the sole support of their families. This was shown by a study, made by the United States Women's Bureau, of the original schedules of three cities from the 1930 United States Census of Occupations.¹ The study covered more than 58,000 women 16 years of age and over, in Fort Wayne, Ind., Bridgeport, Conn., and Richmond, Va. These cities are widely scattered geographically, their industries are of a varied character, and considerable proportions of their women were in gainful employment at the time of the census. They were, in consequence, considered to be representative of urban districts throughout the country. Gainfully employed women represented 29.6 percent of all the women in Fort Wayne, 32.7 percent of those in Bridgeport, 38.8 percent of those in Richmond, and 25.3 percent of those in the United States.

Occupations of Women

The women in each city were employed in a variety of occupations. In Fort Wayne, over half of the 13,000 gainfully employed women were in manufacturing (principally in electrical-supply and clothing factories and knitting mills) and in clerical occupations. Three-fifths of the 17,000 working women of Bridgeport, Conn., were also in these two occupational groups, the factories in which women were employed manufacturing clothing, electrical machinery and supplies, iron and steel, machinery, and vehicles, and chemical and allied products. In Richmond, Va., although over two-fifths of the 28,143 woman workers were employed in manufacturing (mainly cigar and tobacco factories) and in clerical occupations, the largest single occupational group was in domestic and personal service.

The proportions of the working women in each city in the various occupational groups are shown in table 1.

¹ Published as U. S. Women's Bureau Bulletin No. 168 (Employed Women and Family Support), Washington, 1939.

TABLE 1.—*Percent of Gainfully Employed Women in Specified Occupational Groups, by City*

Occupational group	Fort Wayne, Ind.	Bridgeport, Conn.	Richmond, Va.
	<i>Percent</i>	<i>Percent</i>	<i>Percent</i>
Manufacturing.....	28.0	36.4	21.8
Clerical occupations.....	25.6	23.7	20.6
Domestic and personal service.....	18.4	15.2	30.1
Managerial and professional service.....	13.0	12.4	11.9
Selling trades.....	10.8	8.1	7.0
Working in own home.....	2.4	1.5	5.8
Telephone and telegraph operators.....	1.4	2.1	2.4
Not elsewhere classified.....	.4	.6	.4
Total.....	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number of women.....	12,897	17,066	28,143

Family Responsibilities of Working Women

In a considerable proportion of the families of the gainfully employed women in the three cities studied, the women furnished the entire support of the family. About a sixth of such families in Fort Wayne and in Bridgeport, and over a fifth in Richmond, had no male wage earners. Women who were the sole support of their families in Fort Wayne comprised 10.5 percent of all the working women in that city. In Bridgeport the proportion was 10.3 percent, and in Richmond, 13.9 percent.

Single women constituted the largest group of working women in each of these cities, but there were large numbers of married and widowed and divorced women in gainful employment. Over half of the single women lived with one or both parents, but in many cases this indicated an increase in responsibilities rather than the use of their wages solely for personal adornment or pin money. One in every 14 of these single women was the only support of her parents. In many cases there were also dependent small children in the family.

Married women, also, though not so likely to be responsible for the entire support of households, were in many cases supporting fairly large families, which often included young children. This was especially true of Negro women. A larger proportion of the widowed and divorced women were responsible for the full support of the family. About 3 in 10 of these working women in Richmond and Bridgeport and 1 in 4 in Fort Wayne were the sole support of their families.

The family responsibilities of working women in Fort Wayne, Bridgeport, and Richmond are indicated by the data in table 2.

TABLE 2.—Family Status of Gainfully Employed Women in Three Cities

Family status	Fort Wayne, Ind.		Bridgeport, Conn.		Richmond, Va.	
	Num- ber	Per- cent	Num- ber	Per- cent	Num- ber	Per- cent
<i>Single women</i>						
All gainfully employed.....	7,586		10,906		13,776	
In families of 2 or more persons.....	4,807	¹ 63.4	8,920	¹ 81.1	8,850	¹ 64.2
With no male wage earners.....	1,035	² 21.5	1,461	² 16.4	2,289	² 25.9
Sole support of family.....	398	³ 8.3	556	³ 6.2	738	³ 8.3
Living with parent or parents.....	3,666	⁴ 76.3	7,663	⁴ 86.0	6,186	⁴ 69.9
Parents not gainfully employed.....	994	⁵ 27.1	1,887	⁵ 24.6	1,840	⁵ 29.7
Not in families—living alone, boarding, or living with employer.....	2,779		2,076		4,926	
<i>Married women</i>						
All gainfully occupied ⁶	3,469		4,231		9,079	
In families of 2 or more persons ⁷	3,163	⁶ 91.2	3,890	⁶ 91.9	7,822	⁶ 86.2
With no male wage earners.....	122	⁷ 3.9	319	⁷ 8.2	703	⁷ 9.0
Sole support of families.....	95		236		465	
With children under 10.....	34		110		233	
Living with husband.....	2,989		3,420		7,325	
Husband gainfully employed.....	2,913		3,335		7,101	
Husband not gainfully employed.....	76		85		224	
Married women not in families—living alone, board- ing, or living with employer.....	306		341		1,257	
<i>Widowed and divorced women</i>						
All gainfully occupied.....	1,828		1,811		5,274	
In families of 2 or more persons.....	1,111	⁸ 60.8	1,186	⁸ 65.5	3,226	⁸ 61.2
With no male wage earner.....	472	⁹ 42.5	567	⁹ 47.8	1,671	⁹ 51.8
Sole support.....	285		338		983	
With children under 10.....	108		107		428	
Not in families—living alone, boarding, or living with employer.....	717		625		2,048	

¹ Percent of all single women.² Percent of all single women in families.³ Percent of all living with parents.⁴ Includes separated women.⁵ Excludes women living alone, boarding, or living with employer, except those with dependent children.⁶ Percent of all married women.⁷ Percent of all married women in families.⁸ Percent of all widowed and divorced women.⁹ Percent of all widowed and divorced women in families.

Characteristics of Working Women

Age.—In each city the average age of working women tended to be less than that of the rest of the women in the city population. From one-half to three-fifths of the woman workers were 25 and under 55 years of age. Their median ² age in Fort Wayne and Bridgeport was 28 years, and in Richmond it was 30 years.

Nativity and race.—Native white women predominated in the two northern cities, though in Bridgeport over a fifth of the working women were foreign-born. Two of every five working women in Richmond were Negroes. In Fort Wayne the proportion of native white women among the woman workers was 95.1 percent; in Bridgeport, 75.5 percent; and in Richmond, 58.7 percent. This compares with 71.6 percent for the United States.

² Half being older and half younger.

Marital status.—In the two northern cities, 6 of every 10 employed women were single, 2 were married and living with their husbands, and 2 were separated, widowed, or divorced. In Richmond 5 in every 10 were single, 3 were married, and 2 were separated, widowed, or divorced. Single women were employed largely in clerical occupations and in manufacturing; married, widowed, and divorced women were mostly in manufacturing and domestic service. Single women predominated in managerial and professional positions.

Size of Families of Working Women

The families of the gainfully employed women in the three cities varied in size, having from 2 to more than 10 persons. Small families were in the majority, but families of 4 or more persons were numerous. One of every three or four of all the families reported had a woman worker. Two of every 5 of the families with 5 persons, and about 3 in 5 of the families of 9 or more persons had a woman worker.

Gainfully Employed Homemakers

One-third of the 58,000 working women in the three cities covered in the study were homemakers who combined the duties and responsibilities of that position with the job of wage earner. This was about the same proportion as in the United States as a whole. The majority of these homemakers (over nine-tenths) were in jobs which took them away from their homes. In the northern cities they worked for the most part in factories, and in Richmond they were employed largely as domestic servants in private homes. No distribution is available to show how many of the employed homemakers were married and how many were single.

The employed homemakers in the three cities were as a group older than the other working women, there being a much smaller proportion under 25 years of age and a correspondingly larger group 45 years or over. The older homemakers were more apt to work at jobs in their own homes, such as taking in laundry or making a business of boarding and lodging.

In approximately one-fifth (19.6 percent) of the families (2 or more persons) of the homemakers in Bridgeport there were no male wage earners, and in about one-eighth (12.7 percent) of such families the homemaker was the only wage earner. In Fort Wayne the corresponding proportions were 16.3 and 10.2 percent and in Richmond 22.9 and 14.1 percent, respectively.

A considerable proportion of these employed homemakers had young children in their families. In Fort Wayne 20.5 percent of the gainfully employed homemakers had children under 10 years of age in

their households. In Bridgeport the percentage was 24.4, and in Richmond, 27.7. For the United States the percentage was 29.6.

The extent to which the employed homemakers in each of the cities were responsible for the support of young children is indicated in table 3, which shows the number and percent of their families which included children under 10 years of age and which had 3 or more such children.

TABLE 3.—Families of Employed Homemakers With Young Children, by City and Occupation of Homemaker

City and occupation of homemaker	Number of home- makers' families ¹	Number of home- makers' families with—		Percent of home- makers' families with—	
		Children under 10 years	3 or more children under 10 years	Children under 10 years	3 or more children under 10 years
Fort Wayne, Ind.: All occupations.....	3, 571	732	94	20. 5	2. 6
Employed at home:					
Agricultural workers.....	3				
Other.....	227	72	14	31. 7	6. 2
Employed away from home:					
Professional workers.....	247	41	1	16. 6	(²)
Office workers.....	571	66	2	11. 6	(²)
Industrial workers.....	1, 261	256	28	20. 3	2. 2
Servants, waitresses, etc.....	509	156	30	26. 0	5. 0
Saleswomen.....	484	99	12	20. 5	2. 5
Other.....	179	42	7	23. 5	3. 9
Bridgeport, Conn.: All occupations.....	4, 535	1, 107	116	24. 4	2. 6
Employed at home:					
Agricultural workers.....	5	3		(²)	
Other.....	153	48	8	31. 4	5. 2
Employed away from home:					
Professional workers.....	265	29		10. 9	
Office workers.....	648	82	8	12. 7	1. 2
Industrial workers.....	2, 301	653	62	28. 4	2. 7
Servants, waitresses, etc.....	693	183	27	26. 4	3. 9
Saleswomen.....	326	71	6	21. 8	1. 8
Other.....	144	38	5	26. 4	3. 5
Richmond, Va.: All occupations.....	8, 777	2, 435	434	27. 7	4. 9
Employed at home:					
Agricultural workers.....	2				
Other.....	1, 142	427	123	37. 4	10. 8
Employed away from home:					
Professional workers.....	538	88	6	16. 4	1. 1
Office workers.....	1, 154	163	7	14. 1	. 6
Industrial workers.....	2, 158	675	106	31. 3	4. 9
Servants, waitresses, etc.....	3, 034	914	162	30. 1	5. 3
Saleswomen.....	494	109	24	22. 1	4. 9
Other.....	255	59	6	23. 1	2. 4

¹ Of 2 or more persons. Table limited to white and Negro households.

² Less than 0.05 percent.

³ Not computed; base too small.

Much of the difference between Richmond and the two northern cities, as regards occupational distribution and family responsibilities of employed homemakers, was due to the racial composition of the population of the cities. In Richmond about 6 in every 10 (57.6 percent) of the families of employed homemakers were Negro. In Fort Wayne only 3.3 percent and in Bridgeport 4.9 percent of such homemakers' families were Negro. Almost one-fourth of the families of the Negro homemakers in Richmond contained 5 or more persons.

WAGE-ADJUSTMENT PROVISIONS IN UNION AGREEMENTS

VERY infrequently do union agreements in the United States have provisions for the adjustment of general wage rates during the life of the agreement. About 95 percent of the 7,000 agreements now on file with the Bureau of Labor Statistics make no provision for alteration of general wage rates, the wages specified being maintained throughout the time the agreement is in effect.

As the major issue in wage negotiations is the relative share of business income which should go to the workers as wages and to the employer as profits, there has been only occasional concern with short-time wage adjustments during the life of the agreement. The primary concern of American trade-unions is to secure for workers a reasonable share of the benefits of expanding business and increased productivity. They oppose wage cuts as far as possible, seeking to maintain and gradually to raise the standard of living.

Unions have been reluctant to include in their agreements any automatic plans for the adjustment of wage levels. In some instances, unions have contended that employers offered a wage-adjustment formula as a substitute for an actual wage-increase provision in the agreement. The cost-of-living plans are frequently opposed as arrangements for keeping the purchasing power of wages at the same level; the plans which adjust wages to profits, gross revenues, or specified commodity prices are generally avoided by unions because of a fear that the workers will be forced to bear the brunt of depressed conditions or managerial inefficiency, and that living standards will be lowered.

Recent or expected changes in economic conditions, the purchasing power of wages, and the ability of the company to pay specified wages are, of course, taken into account when the wage terms to be included in an agreement are negotiated. Since most agreements remain in effect for a limited period, usually 1 year, it is considered that the agreed wages can continue during that period without working an undue hardship upon either party. Under ordinary circumstances, this is true. In a time of great uncertainty, especially as regards the probable trend of prices, an employer and union may seek means to meet any rapidly changing conditions which might occur before the expiration of their agreement.

The plans which have been used are of two general types—permissive and automatic. The permissive plans authorize the negotiation of new wage rates at stated intervals during the life of the agreement, or when either party can demonstrate a significant change in

such factors as general economic conditions, cost of living, or prevailing wages. The automatic plans make compulsory a wage change as cost of living, prices of given commodities, or profits fluctuate. Both the permissive and the automatic plans may protect existing wage standards by authorizing pay increases only or by prohibiting decreases below the wage level negotiated at the time the agreement was signed.

Permissive Wage-Adjustment Plans

At present, less than 5 percent of the agreements on file with the Bureau of Labor Statistics contain permissive wage-adjustment provisions. In the agreements of the American Federation of Hosiery Workers and the United Shoe Workers, this type of provision is commonly used. In recent years the Textile Workers' Union, the United Furniture Workers, and the International Ladies' Garment Workers' Union also have made frequent use of such provisions.

Wage adjustments, as well as changes in other provisions, are possible, of course, in any agreement with an indefinite term, since such agreements are reopened upon a stated period of notice by either party. Agreements which are to remain in effect for several years sometimes require new wage negotiations annually. Some agreements provide for a review of the wage rates at shorter intervals, usually every 3 or 6 months. More frequently, however, either party is given the right to reopen the question of wage rates whenever it can be established to the satisfaction of both parties that general economic conditions or any of a number of specified matters justify wage readjustments.

Cost of living is the factor most commonly specified as a cause for reopening the wage question. Cost-of-living adjustment provisions, in times such as the present when the European war has led to a general expectancy of price increases, most frequently grant the union the right to reopen wages in order to negotiate an increase. Since the employers do not expect to be able to justify wage decreases during the term of the agreement, the matter of giving the employer an equal right to negotiate for wage decreases is largely an academic question and is often omitted in the agreements now in force. An example of this type of provision follows:

The union reserves the right to reopen negotiations concerning the wage scales herein, should the cost of living increase due to economic conditions, inflation or other circumstances during the life of this agreement.

In order to avoid disputes as to whether or not negotiations should take place, some provisions of the same general type as the above specify that the request for wage increases can be made by the union only after a stated period of time or after a cost-of-living index shows an increase of a specified amount. An example of the first condition is given in the following provision:

If at the end of 6 months from the date of the agreement there is a substantial increase in the cost of living as indicated by the cost-of-living index published by the Department of Labor, the employees may present a request for an adjustment of said prices, and in the event of a disagreement as to such request, the question shall be arbitrated in the manner heretofore provided for before the board described in article 16 hereof.

A permissive provision may restrict the opening of negotiations, as has been mentioned, by requiring a given change in a cost-of-living index before new wage rates can be discussed. In the following provision a rather marked change (5 percent) in the index is required before a wage adjustment can be made. It covers the possibility of decreases as well as increases in the cost of living. A minimum guaranty is established in this provision, however, by prohibiting reduction of wage rates below the level originally specified in the agreement.

Due to the unsettled state in world affairs it is agreed that should the cost of living show an increase of 5 percent or more, then only shall the union have the right, upon 15 days' notice, to open the wage schedule of this agreement for adjustment, when conferences shall be held and any decision reached shall become effective immediately.

Should the union invoke this clause and an increase in wages be granted by reason thereof, then the company, should the cost of living show a decline of 5 percent or more shall have the right to ask for a revision in the wage schedule; however, any revision under this clause shall not be lower than the rates herein established.

The provision quoted below permits both upward and downward revisions of the wage scale as changes occur in a number of factors. This agreement does not specify the minimum below which wages cannot go during the life of the agreement.

If during the term of this agreement, or any renewal thereof, there shall be any significant change in the factors upon which wages depend, either in the cost of production, competitive conditions, cost of living, or other factors of similar importance, either party may demand a change in existing rates.

The following provision is similar, but specifies different conditions for the reopening of wages by the union and the employer. This agreement, which is signed by an employers' association, permits the negotiation of new wage rates in the mill of an association member on the basis of general conditions or whenever the mill is considered to be at a competitive disadvantage. The union may negotiate for an increase in any mill whenever it can be justified by changes in cost of living, prevailing wages, or general conditions. Wage changes are therefore permitted to secure standardization within the industry as well as conformity to general business conditions.

It is further agreed that if there shall occur a general decline or fall of earnings of workers in the industry, or if the cost of production on the same type and condition of equipment shall decline, or if general conditions shall warrant a decrease, then any member mill whose competitive position is adversely affected thereby,

may request, in writing and in detail, a specific revision of its rates of pay. In the event there shall occur a rise in the earnings of workers in the industry, or of the cost of living, or if conditions generally shall warrant an increase in earnings, then the union may request, in writing and in detail, a specific revision of the rates of pay in any member mill. In either event, the union and member mill involved shall negotiate the request, and if they cannot agree, within 30 days after receipt thereof, then the matter shall be submitted to arbitration.

Another provision which recognizes the differing interests of employers and employees in wage adjustments is the following:

Whenever general economic conditions or other special conditions indicate that changes are in order, such changes shall be made with due regard for the rights and privileges and well-being of the employees, as well as the economic position of the company.

In order to avoid unduly frequent proposals for negotiating new wage rates, the provision given below gives each party the right to reopen wages only once during the term of the agreement.

It shall be the privilege of either party to this contract, should it feel that economic conditions have so changed as to work a hardship on it, upon 30 days' notice, to declare the contract open for financial readjustment. The exercise of this privilege to be restricted to one time by either party during the life of this contract.

Some agreements will permit the union to negotiate for increased wages when there is a rise in the prevailing wage in the industry or in the plants of competitors.

It is further agreed that in the event that wages are increased generally throughout that section of the steel industry which is on a competitive basis with "the company," "the union" may notify "the company" of its desire to confer on hours and for wage and hourly rates; and within 5 days after receipt of said notice, "the company" shall appoint representatives who shall be empowered to act jointly with a committee of "the union" and its representatives for the purpose of agreeing upon the hours and for wage and hourly rate adjustments considered necessary by "the union."

Other agreements provide that the union may ask for wage increases only at certain times or when there has been a price increase.

In the event the management is in position and does increase its average selling prices of its products it is hereby agreed that the union may upon 30 days' notice to the management, reopen the wage question for further discussion, but not sooner than 6 months from date of the execution of this agreement.

A few agreements now in effect permit either party to propose wage negotiations in case of changes in the price of a commodity, thus making both wage cuts and wage increases possible under the terms of the agreement. The following provision mentions business conditions in the industry as well.

Either party may, in the event of unfavorable economic conditions in the glass industry, or in the event of radical price changes of bottles, upon 30 days' notice to other party, request a change in any of the terms, rules, or wages set forth herein.

Automatic Wage-Adjustment Plans

The reluctance with which unions enter into automatic wage-adjustment plans undoubtedly accounts for the very few examples found. Of the industries for which the Bureau of Labor Statistics has agreements on file, the only one in which automatic pay plans are characteristic is nonferrous metal mining and smelting.

The automatic plans are designed to adjust wage rates to fluctuations in the purchasing power of wages or in the ability of the particular business enterprise to pay higher or lower wages. These plans are based on a recognition, in advance, that a wage adjustment should automatically follow changes in cost of living, specified prices, or the rate of profit. The amount of the wage change may or may not be specified, but all such provisions make mandatory a change in wages whenever certain changes have taken place.

In the case of automatic adjustments to changes in the purchasing power of wages, the purpose is to maintain at a fixed level the amount of goods and services the wages will buy. This is effected by gearing wages to a cost-of-living index. If wage rates are keyed to cost of living, then "real wages"—the amount of goods and services which the worker can buy—remain the same. Unions contend that, if wage increases merely keep up with the cost of living, the workers will be deprived of their share in the returns of increased production and lower costs made possible by machine and process improvement. Purchasing power, then, will not keep pace with the increasing amount of goods and services offered for sale, because real wages, instead of advancing, will be frozen at the existing level. In partial explanation of this attitude, it is significant to note that only 1 agreement of the 7,000 union agreements in the Bureau's files invokes the cost-of-living index and at the same time provides a means of raising the workers' real income, even in times of rising prices.

It should be noted that these provisions which automatically tie wages to a cost-of-living index do not eliminate all fluctuations in real wages, since at best the wage change can be made retroactive only to the date for which the index was computed and not to the exact time of the changes in cost of living. The Bureau of Labor Statistics' index, which is the index most commonly used, is issued for March 15, June 15, September 15, and December 15, and is not available until about 5 weeks after these dates. A retroactive provision creates considerable difficulties. If the index has risen sharply, the payment of back wages may be difficult for the company to meet. If the index has fallen, there is the problem of collecting from the workers a proportion of the wages already received and spent. From the practical point of view it is virtually impossible to avoid the lag in real wages brought about by dating the wage adjustments from the date of publication of the index.

In addition, the question of how well the index measures actual changes in the cost of living of a specific group of workers in a given locality must be carefully studied. The Bureau of Labor Statistics' index indicates price changes in 32 cities. This index is based on living costs of a family of 5 with an annual income of \$1,500. Workers with lower incomes will find their living costs rising faster than this index if food prices are going up more rapidly than the prices of other items, because a larger proportion of their income goes to buy food.

In the automatic plans which gear wages to the prices of specified commodities or to the amount of profits, the purpose is not to maintain purchasing power at a fixed level but to regulate wages according to the company's ability to pay. Since high prices do not necessarily mean high profits, and vice versa, there is considerable question concerning the accuracy of measuring a company's ability to pay by the prices of the product produced. Differences in accounting methods also would produce differences in the amount of profits shown on the books, leading perhaps to a discrepancy between indicated profits and the company's ability to pay.

The automatic plans are likely to meet further objections from organized labor if the agreement provides for decreases as well as increases in wage rates, since workers are inclined to view any reduction in money wages as a setback.

AUTOMATIC PLANS BASED ON COST OF LIVING

An automatic plan least objectionable to workers is one such as the following, which permits automatic increases in wage rates as the cost-of-living index changes by a specified amount, but does not permit reductions in wage rates.

Wages in effect July 7, 1938, will remain constant for the period July 8, 1938–December 31, 1938. The corporation will recognize an advance in the cost of living, as evidenced by labor statistics for the ——— area published by the Department of Labor for low-salaried workers, on the following basis: If during this July–December period, the cost of living has advanced beyond the cost of living on July 1, 1937, the corporation will make an adjustment for the period January 1, 1939–June 30, 1939, as follows: When the percentage advance is sufficient, calculated on the basis of 40 cents per hour, to turn out 1 cent, all wages will be advanced 1 cent per hour. Example: Assuming the cost of living advanced 2½ percent during the period July–December, then for the period January–June wages would be advanced 1 cent per hour, because 40 cents per hour times 2½ percent is 1 cent. There shall be no increase in wages if the percentage advance in living is less than one-half cent; the increase shall be the nearest even cent.

One type of provision establishes automatic wage cuts as well as increases in accordance with the changes in cost of living. In the second case given below a considerable change in the index is required.

During the term of this agreement, wages shall be adjusted according to the rise and fall of the cost of living upon the request of either party. In the event

of a disagreement between the parties hereto as to such an adjustment, the matter shall be submitted to the impartial chairman for a decision.

In view of unsettled economic conditions which are apt to result in violent changes in the cost of living, it is hereby agreed: That the piece rates paid to piece workers and hourly wages paid to week workers shall be revised periodically in accordance with the changes in the cost of living as computed and published by the United States Department of Labor. That whenever the cost-of-living index registers a change equal to or exceeding 5 percent since the last published figure prior to the signing of the agreement, an automatic change in the piece rates or wages shall be instituted on the date one month following the publication of the index by the Department of Labor: That thereafter such adjustments should take place whenever, in the aggregate, the changes in the cost of living amount to or exceed 5 percent from the date of the latest wage adjustment.

In the provision above, the amount of the wage change is left to negotiation. The following, however, specifies the amount of wage change to be put into effect, by providing that the percentage change in wages is to be equal to that in the index of living costs.

Wage rates shall be adjusted automatically to the cost of living in the following manner: The basis shall be the quarterly cost of living index in ———, issued by the U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics. Effective the pay period following publication of the index, wage rates shall be increased or decrease by the same percentage as the index has changed from quarter to quarter.

A similar arrangement is in effect in the plants of The General Electric Co., with the addition of a guaranty that wages will not be reduced below those in effect October 1, 1936. This plan has been incorporated in the union agreement, although it was instituted before the first agreement was signed. The quotation below is from the company's statement of policy:

* * * in order to allay concern on the part of employees as to the rise in the cost of living, automatic increase in employee earnings will be made as the cost of living rises. The index taken for the cost of living will be the figures published by the Department of Labor of the United States Government. This plan provides that if the cost of living goes up, corresponding increases will be made in employee earnings, up to a maximum of 10 percent above the present level, and when this point is reached the company will again give consideration to this question. If the cost of living decreases, adjustments will be made downward, but will not go below the standard of employee earnings now in effect * * *.

The cost-of-living adjustment is automatic and will be paid without any necessity of complaint or collective bargaining on the part of employees * * *.

The following unusual clause was found in only one agreement in the Bureau's files. In it wage rates are keyed to the cost of living and there is provided in addition a regular, periodic increase in real wages by providing that the wage be adjusted to cost of living and then be increased by 1½ percent every 6 months. A board of arbitration has interpreted the last sentence by the insertion of the word "latest" before "basic scale." In other words this agreement, which extends for 5 years, makes provision for a 1½ percent increase in real wages every 6 months.

Provided, that the above 87½ cents is the basic scale and shall be subject to an adjustment to the cost of living and increase of purchasing power in the following manner: The basis shall be the index of the cost of living in ———, issued by the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics. Adjustment shall be made on March 1st and September 1st of each year during the life of this contract and shall be automatically determined in accordance with the following formula: Multiply the effective basic scale per hour by the new index number times 1.015 and divide by the index number for [effective date of agreement].

AUTOMATIC PLANS BASED ON PREVAILING WAGES

In some instances the wage rates in a particular plant are to be changed automatically as changes occur in the prevailing wage in an industry or area. The following provision from the men's clothing industry would apply changes negotiated with the employers' association in the metropolitan area to the wages in this company, which signed a separate agreement with the union: "If any change should take place in the market in regard to wage standards, it is understood that such change will apply to this agreement."

Another provision establishes an automatic pay increase in the industry if the total industrial pay roll in the city increases.

The minimum wage from March 1, 1938, to March 1, 1939, shall be \$1.15 per hour. The minimum wage from March 1, 1939, to March 1, 1940, shall be \$1.25 per hour, provided that the total amount of the industrial pay roll of the city of ———, for the months of November and December 1938 and January 1939 exceed by 10 percent or more the total industrial pay roll during the months of November and December 1937 and January 1938. It is agreed by both parties to this agreement that as a basis for determining the volume of the industrial pay roll as aforementioned, figures compiled by the ——— chamber of commerce and the United States Department of Labor shall be used.

AUTOMATIC PLANS BASED ON PRICE OF PRODUCT

Plans for the automatic adjustment of wages to the price of the commodity produced are rare except in nonferrous metal mining and smelting. Most of these agreements provide for wage increases and decreases as the prices change, but specify a minimum rate below which wages cannot fall during the life of the agreement. An example of this type of provision is the following, from the current agreement between the Anaconda Copper Mining Co. and the International Union of Mine, Mill and Smelter Workers:

The minimum wage for underground miners for an 8-hour day shall be \$5; provided that where differentials in amounts of rates of pay for miners, surface employees, and other members of the union covered by this agreement, because of classification, were, prior to July 1, 1939, higher or lower than said minimum, the differentials shall not be changed in amount. The said minimums are based upon a price for electrolytic copper of less than 9 cents per pound.

When the price of electrolytic copper is or exceeds 9 cents per pound and continues for a period of 30 successive days at or exceeding an average of 9 cents per pound, the said minimums shall be increased 25 cents per day; when the price of electrolytic copper is or exceeds 9¼ cents per pound and continues for a

period of 30 successive days at or exceeding an average of 9½ cents per pound there shall be a further increase in the wage of 50 cents per day; when the price of electrolytic copper is or exceeds 11½ cents per pound and continues for a period of 30 successive days at or exceeding an average of 11½ cents per pound, there shall be a further increase in said wage of 25 cents per day; and when the price of electrolytic copper is or exceeds 13 cents per pound and continues for a period of 30 successive days at or exceeding an average of 13 cents per pound, there shall be a further increase in said wage of 25 cents per day, and similar increases of 25 cents per day shall be made for each 1½ cents of rise in the average price of electrolytic copper for any period of 30 successive days above 13 cents per pound, subject to the conditions hereinafter provided.

There shall be no increase in said wage until and unless the price for electrolytic copper reaches a base price at which an increase in the then current wage is to be made under the foregoing schedule and until and unless the average price of electrolytic copper for a period of 30 successive days thereafter equals or exceeds such base price, and in such event such change shall remain in effect for a continuous period of not less than 30 successive days. In case the price of electrolytic copper declines below the base price upon which the then current wages are based and the average price of electrolytic copper for any period of 30 successive days thereafter is less than such base price, the wage to be paid after said 30-day period shall be the minimum wage above set forth plus such addition, if any, to such minimum wage, as the schedule above set forth provides shall be made with respect to such average price. Further successive increases or decreases in wages shall be made subject to the foregoing conditions, dependent upon the average price of copper from time to time; provided, however, that when a change in wage is made, no further change therein shall be made for a period of at least 30 successive days.

The price for electrolytic copper on any day shall be that quoted for such day in the Engineering and Mining Journal for deliveries f. o. b. Connecticut Valley points, and the average price per pound of electrolytic copper for a period of 30 successive days shall be the average of the price for said 30 days set forth in said Journal for said deliveries.

Although the Anaconda agreement ties wages to the price of one metal, some of the agreements in this industry base wage adjustments on the prices of the several metals produced at the same mines. An example of this type of provision follows:

It is mutually agreed that the wage scale, for all employees of the company covered by this agreement, shall rise and fall with the rise and fall of the prices of bar silver at New York, lead at New York, and prime western zinc at St. Louis, as set forth below:

(a) When the price of silver is 64.64 cents per ounce, the price of lead 5 cents per pound, and the price of zinc is 5 cents per pound, the wage for machine miners shall be \$5.35 per 7 hour and 30 minute shift as defined below.

(b) Wages for machine miners shall be increased at the rate of 1 cent per shift for each 1 cent per ounce that the price of silver is above 64.64 cents per ounce. Wages for machine miners shall be decreased 1 cent per shift for each 1 cent per ounce that the price of silver is less than 64.64 cents per ounce. Fractions shall be in proportion.

(c) Wages for machine miners shall be increased at the rate of 10 cents per shift for each 1 cent per pound that the price of lead is above 5 cents per pound. Wages for machine miners shall be decreased at the rate of 10 cents per shift for each 1 cent per pound that the price of lead is below 5 cents per pound. Fractions shall be in proportion.

(d) Wages for machine miners shall be increased at the rate of 25 cents per shift for each 1 cent per pound that the price of prime western zinc is above 5 cents per pound. Wages for machine miners shall be decreased at the rate of 25 cents per shift for each 1 cent per pound that the price of prime western zinc is below 5 cents per pound. Fractions shall be in proportion.

(e) The wages to be paid for machine miners shall not fall below \$4.50 per 7 hour and 30 minute shift as defined below, regardless of the price of silver, lead, and zinc.

(f) The metal prices to govern shall be the averages for the respective metals for the second preceding month as published by the Engineering and Mining Journal. For example, average November 1938 metal prices shall determine wages for January 1939. December 1938, average metal prices shall determine wages for February 1939. After computation of increases and decreases in silver, lead and zinc prices, the wage scale will be posted to the nearest cent per shift.

Other types of such provisions base wage adjustments on the "average" or combined price change of several commodities.

If the company is able during the term of this contract to increase selling prices of its line of products in amounts which will be an average increase of 10 percent over selling prices as of June 1, 1939, the company agrees to increase day rates and piece-work rates 5 percent over the rates prevailing on June 1, 1939. If selling prices increase an average of 10 percent over selling prices in effect as of April 10, 1938, the company agrees to increase the day rates and piece-work rates to the scale prior to April 10, 1938.

Automatic Plans Based on Profits

Plans providing additional wage payments if profits reach a certain amount are seldom found in union agreements. Most of the profit-sharing plans now in effect in American industry are in unorganized plants.

One of the few agreements on file with the Bureau of Labor Statistics which contains a detailed profit-sharing plan covers the employees of a chain of automobile service stations. The company pays to not more than 7 employees in each station a bonus equal to 12 percent of the total net profits of that station in which they are employed. The share which each employee receives is specified, the managers receiving the largest amounts.

Another type of such provision guarantees an increase in wages if the company has earned a given percentage of the gross volume of sales during the first few months of the agreement.

The following provision from an agreement covering a city passenger-transportation system grants an automatic increase if gross revenues reach a certain level.

Beginning January 1, 1938, an additional increase of 1 cent per hour for hourly employees, or its equivalent for monthly men, will be given when the gross revenues for 1938 have exceeded the gross revenue of the corresponding period of 1937 by \$500,000, said increase to become effective on the first day of the month following the date on which said increase in revenue is attained.

BENEFITS, FUNCTIONS, AND PROCEDURES OF SMALL-CLAIMS COURTS

By JOHN S. BRADWAY, *Duke University, Durham, N. C.*

A SMALL-CLAIMS court is a specialized tribunal created by statute, with specific duties and powers. It is designed to provide a judicial determination of disputes involving small amounts of money. Its procedure is significant for inexpensiveness, speed, and simplicity. Historical precedent for such an organization is to be found in the English market courts, the pie powder courts, and similar agencies.¹

In the United States, during the past quarter century the movement to establish such courts in urban centers has been a significant part of the general program of remolding a legal system established under frontier conditions, to meet the social and economic changes which have created our present highly industrialized civilization. Much has been written on the subject, largely descriptive of the growth of the idea or explanatory of the operation of particular courts, but less attention has been given by writers to the obstacles confronting a group of persons who may desire to establish such a court in their own community. The present article proposes to consider some of the questions which have been raised and some of the answers given.

Those who may desire to create this sort of judicial machinery will face at least three major tasks: (1) Disposing of certain points of view opposed to the whole idea; (2) determining whether there is need in the particular community for a new court; and (3) deciding the details of establishment, procedure, and administration. The progress of the idea to date proves that these obstacles are by no means insurmountable.

Attitudes Toward Small-Claims Courts

Many earnest and sincere persons may object to the creation of a small-claims court in a particular community because traditionally they are opposed to a court system, or because of religious convictions, or because it may be regarded as encroaching upon something like a vested interest.

The survival of a colonial reaction against the English legal system is a tradition with which modern social engineers should be prepared to cope. The early religious conviction that controversies should be settled out of court finds strong modern support and cannot be ignored. Medieval English statutes against maintenance, cham-

¹ See *A History of the English Courts* (5th ed.), by A. T. Carter, London, Butterworth & Co., 1927, p. 164; and *A Concise History of the Common Law* (2d ed.), by T. F. T. Plucknett, London, Butterworth & Co., 1936, p. 590.

perty,² fomenting quarrels, and encouraging lawsuits have their counterparts in our criminal law,³ and a proponent of a plan to make it easier to litigate should be prepared for disagreements.

Perhaps there is no complete answer to such attitudes, but it may be argued that our constitutional guaranties of equal protection of the law must be made good; that quite aside from encouraging unjustified claims there is need to see that no obstacles are placed in the way of those whose claims are meritorious; that unless the great majority of the people in a democracy have confidence in the administration of justice the foundations of the State are insecure. More than in any other way, that confidence is engendered by satisfactory personal contacts by the individual in his own cases. If he knows that the obtaining of justice is inexpensive, speedy, and not too cumbersome, he will be less easily persuaded to seek disorderly methods of changing the present system.

Criticisms of our judicial machinery are so prevalent as to warrant careful thought on the part of those primarily charged with its operation. The records of existing small-claims courts demonstrate that they do provide the individual, irrespective of his means, with a satisfactory device for disposing of small money claims. Some of them, by provisions for conciliation, emphasize the desirability of amicable adjustment of difficulties. The simplicity of access to them appeals to the general public.

These viewpoints call for careful scrutiny, but the major problem may be included in the question, Does a particular community need a small-claims court?

Determining the Need for a Small-Claims Court

If the class of persons which would use the facilities of a small-claims court is so circumscribed as to be negligible, or if the existing court structure is adequate for all reasonable demands made upon it, the proposal to create a new tribunal may be opposed on the grounds of overlapping, expense, and over-organization. These matters call for thorough factual surveys rather than assumptions or conclusions hastily reached upon personal bias or necessarily limited individual opportunities for acquiring information.

Since the court will be available to any person with a small claim, it will probably be well patronized. The records of some of the courts now in existence indicate that one need not fear any lack of business.*

² Furnishing of money or service in a lawsuit by a person with no legitimate interest therein, in return for a share of the proceeds of the suit.

³ See *Handbook of Criminal Law*, by Justin Miller, St. Paul, West Publishing Co., 1934, p. 458.

⁴ Data from the annual reports of the New York City courts indicate a continuous increase in the number of summonses (paid and free) year by year, rising from 4,169 in 1934 to 37,371 in 1938; in the same time the total judgments rose from \$51,455 to \$441,263. For similar data on the development of the small-claims court in the District of Columbia, see *Monthly Labor Review*, August 1939.

It is a question to be determined in each particular community whether the cheapness, speed, and simplicity of the proposed tribunal will be so much of an advantage over existing facilities that the proponents can succeed either in supplanting some of them or adjusting the new court to the rest. This is to be determined in part by considerations of relative expense and efficiency, but perhaps also upon whether it is proposed to abolish vested interests.

At the present time small money disputes are taken care of in many ways, some of the more obvious being collection agencies, lawyers, justices of the peace, and the regular court system. The collection agencies can and do perform valuable service, but their effectiveness is definitely limited by statutes and decisions in the field of the unauthorized practice of the law.⁵ A collection agency may not, without violating the statute, do acts which amount to practice of the law. Since the adjustment of these small money disputes in many instances involves acts amounting to the practice of the law, recent statutes have segregated a class of cases which may require some new remedy.

Lawyers, because they may practice law, handle some of these cases. There are, however, at least two limitations on the effectiveness of the bar in this connection. The first is that unless the case can be adjusted amicably it must be taken to court, involving expense and delay which sometimes are prohibitive. The second is that unless a lawyer can obtain a reasonable return for his labors in handling a particular type of case, it becomes unprofitable.⁶ Lawyers are coming to appreciate more and more the value of a cost-accounting system in their offices, because this shows them the types of legal business which they can, and those which they cannot, afford to handle. Here again there are two classes of cases which may need a new remedy.

Traditionally, the justice of the peace has handled small-money collections. The justice of the peace, as an institution, however, is undergoing careful scrutiny.⁷ If the criticisms are justified, we may expect changes in the existing machinery. In any event the economy⁸ and efficiency of the small-claims-court procedure has much to commend itself to unbiased observers.

⁵ See *Unauthorized Practice of Law*, by F. C. Hicks and E. R. Katz, Chicago, American Bar Association, 1934, p. 97.

⁶ See American Bar Association. Special Committee on the Economic Condition of the Bar. *Economics of the Legal Profession*. Chicago, 1938, pp. 108 et seq. This is a manual designed primarily for the use of State, local, and junior bar associations, describing the results of the bar surveys made to date; the chief proposals advanced for improving the profession and its economic condition; and the methods and forms used in the several surveys.

⁷ For example see North Carolina Bar Association, Report No. 40: Report of Committee on Justices of Peace, Raleigh, 40 Reports North Carolina Bar Association (1938), p. 115.

⁸ For data on the cost of a small-claims court, see page 26.

With respect to the question whether the regular court system is an adequate device, it may be urged that the inevitable expense, delay, and complexity tend to discourage the man who has a small claim. It is possible to prove that with our present system of court costs and fees, the litigant with the small claim pays a disproportionate part of the expense of operating the judicial machine.⁹ Records indicate that many trial-court calendars are months or even years behind, and that small cases help to clog the wheels.¹⁰ The complexity of the system makes necessary an additional expense, as litigants must be represented by counsel. Since many routine small claims do not involve profound questions of law, it seems wasteful of time and money to require that they be put through an elaborate litigation process. There are at least two alternatives—to provide a lawyer for the litigant without cost to himself, as in the case of legal-aid societies, or to create a new kind of court. Legal-aid societies, which would naturally appear as counsel in many small claims, are on record as favoring the establishment of small-claims courts.¹¹

Points for Consideration in Establishing a Small-Claims Court

It is therefore a question to be determined whether the existing machinery in any community is adequate to take care of these small money disputes. If, after investigation in a particular community, it is found that the machinery for any of the reasons indicated above is not adequate, a suitable solution is available in the small-claims court. These agencies have been successful where established, but their success is no matter of chance. Painstakingly, the pioneers in this field have built up, by the trial-and-error method, a system keyed to this particular type of work. One who desires the establishment of a new court may find guidance from inspection of the statutory provisions and rules of court, which have stood the test of actual experience.¹²

STATUTORY PROVISIONS

A committee contemplating the creation of a small-claims court will be concerned with the text of the statute or the rules of court under which the proposed plan is to function. As a guide in this

⁹ Social Work Technique (Los Angeles), September-October, 1938, pp. 182-188: On What Basis Should Court Filing Fees be Fixed? by Robert E. Stone.

¹⁰ Brown, Esther Lucile: Lawyers and the Promotion of Justice. New York, Russell Sage Foundation, 1938, p. 198.

¹¹ See Public Administration Service Bulletin No. 47 (1935), quoting Ideal No. 3, adopted by the National Association of Legal Aid Organizations.

¹² Much material relating to the statutes is also contained in the following: Columbia Law Review, vol. 34 (1934), p. 932; University of Pennsylvania Law Review, November 1936; St. John's Law Review, vol. 9 (1934), p. 247; and Yale Law Journal, vol. 42 (1933), p. 561.

direction a discussion of the provisions of various statutes¹³ and rules of court,¹⁴ grouped under appropriate headings for the purpose of comparison, may be useful.

The dissimilarities among the laws stand out at once. In some States the legislators have created a court, in others a conciliation procedure. Sometimes both have been used. The distinction between a court and a method of solving problems according to law should be kept in mind. Again, a few States are not content with a single act. Thus, Oregon has one act for the justices' courts and another for the district courts. Connecticut has a general act and, in addition, one for Hartford and one for Stamford. Methods of procedure differ, names of officials vary. One State makes elaborate provisions for an appeal, whereas another eliminates appeals in certain cases. It would appear that no model or uniform law is possible, but that a sponsoring group, after studying local conditions and determining upon the skeleton outline of a plan, may save time and effort by being able to refer to a comparative discussion of the language used in the different jurisdictions in which such courts or procedure are already in operation.

Establishment of the Court

Obviously, the first question relates to the establishment of the court. The problem here relates to tying the new piece of machinery into an existing system. As the system differs in each State and often from one county to another in the same State, the general situations which must be met may be indicated. One plan establishes a new court, a second creates a new department of an existing court, another empowers an existing court to make rules, and still another authorizes the Board of County Commissioners or similar governing body to create the court.

One cannot, without knowledge of needs in a particular community, say which is the best device. The majority of laws make the small-

¹³ These laws are as follows: *California* Code of Civ. Procedure (Deering's Supp. 1933), sec. 117; *Colorado* Comp. Laws (Supp. 1932), ch. 135, sec. VI, and 6219.1-9; *Connecticut*, Spec. Acts, chs. 187 and 319, and Gen. Stat. 1930, sec. 5360; *District of Columbia* Code (Supp. 1938), title 18, ch. 5-A; *Idaho* Code, 1932, vol. I, title 1, ch. 15, secs. 1-1501 to 1-1514; *Iowa* Code, 1935, ch. 478, sec. 10820-24; *Kansas* Gen. Stat., 1935, ch. 20, art. 13, secs. 20-1301 to 20-1312; *Maryland* Pub. Laws, 1939, ch. 137, sec. 716-C-K; *Massachusetts* Ann. Laws, 1935, vol. 7, ch. 218, secs. 21-25; *Michigan* Comp. Laws (Mason's Supp. 1935), ch. 271½, secs. 16517-47 to 16517-61; *Minnesota* Stat. (Mason 1927), ch. IX, secs. 1377-1382; *Nevada* Comp. Laws, 1929, vol. IV, secs. 9364-9377; *New Jersey* Rev. Stats., 1937, vol. I, art. 2, secs. 2:9-14 to 2:9-26; *New York* Laws, 1934, ch. 598, title X, secs. 179-187; *North Dakota* Comp. Laws (Supp. 1925), sec. 9192a1-9192a15 and Justices Code, ch. 8, secs. 9192a1 to 9192a14; *Oregon* Code, 1930, vol. II, title 28, ch. 12, secs. 28-1209 to 28-1216, and ch. 14, secs. 28-1401 to 28-1414; *Rhode Island* Gen. Laws, 1938, ch. 592, secs. 1-16; *South Dakota* Comp. Laws, 1929, vol. II, title 6, part 3, ch. 3, sec. 5228-A. E; *Utah* Laws, 1933, ch. 16, secs. 1-16; *Vermont* Pub. Laws, 1933, title 9, ch. 61, secs. 1481-1485; and *Washington* Rev. Stats. (Remington's 1932), vol. IV, title 12, ch. 2, secs. 1777-1 to 1777-12.

¹⁴ Rules of Court: Municipal Court of the City of New York, Assignment of Justices and Rules of Practice, 1939, pp. 70, 76-80; Massachusetts Rules for Small Claims Procedure (in U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics Bulletin No. 607, p. 182); The Municipal Court of Cleveland, Laws and Rules, revised to July 1, 1936, pp. 57-59; Municipal Court of the City of Des Moines, Iowa, Rules for Conciliation (typewritten); Information Concerning the Small Claims Court of Portland, Oreg. (typewritten).

claims court a part of an existing court—either justice of the peace, city court, or district court. This plan probably has the advantage of economy and efficiency.

Naming the Court

The name, "small-claims court," would seem to be most characteristic and adequately descriptive. But an inspection of the usage indicates a wide variety of titles, each one prompted perhaps by a situation which may have brought about the establishment of the agency in the first place. Thus we find "The Wage Claims Court," "Small Claims Department of the Municipal Court," "Small Claims and Conciliation Branch of the Municipal Court," "Conciliation Division of the Municipal Court," "The Small Claims Department of the Justices Court," "The Small Cause Court," "The Small Debtors' Court." If it seems desirable to adopt one title it would seem that "The Small Claims Court" is the most popular. It has already acquired a definite meaning to the lay public.

Jurisdiction of Court

Exclusive or alternative jurisdiction.—Where the matter is referred to in the act, in practically every instance the jurisdiction of the court is made alternative. The exception is the District of Columbia in which the word "exclusive" is used. It would seem that, in theory at least, there would be no reason for duplication and that by requiring litigants to bring their small claims to the specialized tribunal congestion in other courts could be avoided. Of course, constitutional questions of due process, trial by jury, and right of appeal must not be overlooked.

Geographical jurisdiction.—The place in which the action must be brought is the subject of considerable attention. In the greater number of laws this must be done in the county in which the defendant resides. Some laws add that it must be the county in which the defendant has his usual place of business. Others merely refer to the jurisdiction of the court of which the small-claims court is a part. It might be argued that since the main object of the court is the speedy and inexpensive collection of small money claims, the convenience of the plaintiff should be consulted as well as that of the defendant.

Upper limit of financial jurisdiction.—The upper limit in the amount of claims which may be brought in a small-claims court varies from \$20 to \$200; the most common figure seems to be \$50. It is necessary to agree upon some limit, because as the size of the claim increases it becomes more and more worth while to the parties to see that it is litigated in the regular trial courts. Above a certain amount, the problems belong more properly in a municipal court or a county court with technical pleadings and formal rules of evidence.

In some instances the lawmakers have found it expedient to explain the upper limit by indicating that, in calculating it, items such as interest or attorneys fees are not included.

Procedure when defendant's counterclaim exceeds upper limit.—Several of the States anticipate that even though the plaintiff asks for a sum within the jurisdiction of the small-claims court the defendant may enter a counterclaim for a larger sum. The accepted method is to declare that the case is no longer within the limited jurisdiction of the first tribunal and to arrange to have it transferred to another court for adjudication. Some provision on this subject would seem to be necessary.

Jurisdiction as to type of case.—The question whether a small-claims court should accept every type of case as long as the upper financial limit is not exceeded, or whether it should handle only a single type such as wage claims or small debts, has interested the legislators. Often the statute expresses the matter affirmatively by describing what the jurisdiction includes. In other cases it specifies that the jurisdiction shall not include an enumerated list, such as actions for the recovery of real estate, or rent, and slander and libel. All statutes limit the work to civil cases. It would seem that any reasons which prompt the creation of such a court for wage claims would apply with equal force to other small money claims either in tort or contract. Perhaps other specialized courts may be created for claims as to real or personal property.

Who may be plaintiff?—Not everyone may be plaintiff in these courts. The problem seems to be to keep the machinery free for the use of the poor man or the individual who may have an occasional claim, but to discourage too much litigation by collection agencies. Therefore in some instances assignees and corporations are excluded. The number of cases which any one person may bring in the court during a given period of time is also limited.

Beginning Action

The statutes often outline the steps in instituting action in a small-claims court. In some instances the applicant must first qualify by showing either that he is a poor person or that he has made a bona fide effort to conciliate the case. Generally all he needs to do is to step up to the clerk of court, tell his story, sign an affidavit, and pay the filing fee. Significant are provisions requiring the clerk and sometimes the judge to assist the applicant.

Method of Service Upon Defendant

The customary methods of service by constable or other officer are likely to be expensive and, for small claims, cumbersome. Service by mail is therefore a favorite device. Sometimes this is the only method provided. In other cases several alternative procedures are

available. Again, some provisions are quite elaborate as to the way in which such notices shall be sent. Some statutes go so far as to include service by telephone or personal contact by the judge.

One matter to be considered, however, is the point beyond which informality may become inefficiency. Another question revolves about registered or unregistered letters, and return receipt cards bearing the signature of the defendant.

Methods of Procedure of Small-Claims Courts

Informality of proceedings.—Simplicity and informality of procedure are essential in a small-claims court if it is to appeal to the average citizen as a place to which to bring his legal problems. The manner of declaring a policy on this point varies considerably from statute to statute. The provisions include references to the pleadings or the rules of evidence, or general statements of policy, and some statutes rest in the court the discretion to handle specific matters. Other regulations designed to further this purpose will be found in various provisions such as those covering the filing of claim, entry of judgment, discretionary assessment of costs, and prescribed forms.

Representation by counsel.—If only one party in a proceeding in the small-claims court is represented by counsel, the other, whatever the real facts of the case may be, may feel that he needs a lawyer and believe that without one he is at a disadvantage. To overcome such an attitude two extreme alternatives are possible: (1) The unrepresented litigant may be provided with a lawyer; a legal-aid society, in cities where one exists, may be available for the poor man. (2) Lawyers may be excluded from participation. Several statutes contain provisions excluding the bar. In one State the possibility that court officials may attempt to profit at the expense of the litigant is considered and provided against.

The docket.—Several of the statutes specifically require that a docket be kept, and indicate in some detail the necessary information for the record. In the conciliation phase of the proceedings, it is not unusual to find only a meager record of the results.

Forms used.—In general two forms are prescribed for use in small-claims courts—the statement of the plaintiff's claim, and the order or summons served upon the defendant to inform him of the pendency of the action. Perhaps as important as either of these are the instructions to the defendant sometimes appearing on the lower portion of the order. The simplicity of these forms and the conciseness of the instructions indicate an intention to keep the court process within the limits of understanding of the layman.

Court Hearings

Setting time for hearing.—Enough time should elapse between the sending and serving of the notice and the time of the hearing to enable

the defendant to make reasonable preparations for his defense. But speed is essential. In an effort to provide for both speed and fairness the statutes have decreed a fairly flexible system. In some cases the law specifies both a minimum and maximum period between notice and hearing. Authority to continue the hearing to meet the convenience of the parties is granted.

Provisions relating to the defense.—Not all the statutes make special provision for the defendant. In general the intent appears that the procedure for raising a defense shall be as simple as that for filing a claim. The problem of the counterclaim or set-off may receive attention in the law, but in the absence of special limitations all the defendant need do is to come into court and tell his story. The court may continue the case if additional time is needed.

Witnesses and evidence.—Although witnesses are permitted at the hearings, there is often a clause indicating that it is not necessary to summon them. Provisions appear in some statutes authorizing the judge to consult with them informally.

Manner of conducting the hearing.—Requirements on the methods of conducting a hearing seem to be designed to secure substantial justice. Some of them prescribe an effort at conciliation by the trial judge. There is no complete agreement as to whether rules of practice, procedure, pleading, or evidence shall be waived, but it is not unusual to see a statement that the rules of substantive law shall govern.

Fee and Cost Provisions

The term "fee" when used in connection with court expenses is usually applied to those payments which a litigant must deposit to start the suit. The term "costs" is used in connection with other payments which must be made to carry on the case. A definite fee may be prescribed in the law but costs vary with the length and nature of each proceeding. The statutes do not always preserve the distinction, but the language shows which is meant. The filing fee is designed to cover the expense of carrying the case to judgment. An additional fee is often prescribed for service of process by mail or registered mail. In some jurisdictions discretion is vested in the court to waive payment of a fee, presumably in favor of the poor person who may appear with a legally meritorious case, but is without sufficient funds. In one jurisdiction special sections of the act forbid the court officers from taking additional sums from litigants.

Some statutes declare that no costs shall be assessed. Others vest discretion in the court to waive them. Still others distinguish between costs and "actual disbursements." Where costs may be assessed the court sometimes has discretion to impose them upon the loser.

Judgments, Appeals, Transfers

Entry of judgment.—Provisions for the entry of judgment and for orders requiring the losing party to pay it are quite elaborate. A favorite device is the payment upon such terms and conditions as the judge may order. This flexibility would seem to be highly desirable in promoting collection of the judgment in a class of cases in which the losing party may have little or no funds.

Transferring of judgment to another court.—In some jurisdictions the procedure calls for a transfer of the judgment to another court prior to execution. The statutes prescribe the forms by which such transfer is to be recorded.

Appeal or transfer to another court.—It is generally contemplated, to avoid constitutional difficulties, that an appeal may be taken or the case transferred to another court. The decision of the small-claims court is frequently declared to be final and conclusive as to the plaintiff. Although the defendant is not so strictly limited, certain obstacles are placed in his way if he insists upon pursuing the matter farther. These sometimes include the payment of an attorney's fee to the plaintiff if the plaintiff finally wins, and a bond to cover costs of appeal.

Jury Trial

Provisions relating to trial by jury do not lend themselves readily to a systematic classification. It does seem not unreasonable to provide that the plaintiff, by electing to bring his suit in this particular court, has waived his right to trial by jury, nor to require the defendant, if he wishes this extra and expensive addition to a court hearing, to post bond or prepay the cost of summoning a jury. The records indicate that comparatively few of the litigants do demand this.

Execution

Here again it is difficult to classify the material in the statutes beyond the initial division into: (1) Statutes which provide the method of issuing execution, and (2) those extra provisions allowing certain process such as attachment or garnishment to issue as an aid to the simpler procedure.

Special Rules as to Conciliation

Since the statutes include much material on conciliation, it seems well to insert it here. It may be argued that any judge has authority to encourage litigants who appear before him to adjust their difficulties without trial. Pretrial procedure, where it has been tried, makes use of conciliation. Whether or not it is desirable to require a certificate of conciliation before permitting a litigant to come into the court depends in large measure upon local conditions.

Power to Make Rules

The wisdom of allowing a small-claims court to make and modify rules for its governance cannot be doubted. The main question is as to how far the legislature should attempt to formulate administrative provisions which necessarily are somewhat experimental and which may be more difficult to change than a rule of court.

Cost of a Small-Claims Court

The expense of operating a small-claims court is not easily arrived at, because of a number of factors. Some idea about the matter may be obtained from the following scattered data. A letter from the Hon. Pelham St. George Bissell, president judge of the New York City Municipal Court, reads in part as follows:

In connection with the cost of operation of the court, let me say that when the small-claims parts of the municipal court were established in New York City no provision whatsoever was made for extra employees or judges, and none has been made since, except that upon my request, the legislature passed an act permitting the president justice to assign our official referees to sit in the small claims. At the present time the salary of our official referees is \$4,878 a year. These referees are appointed by the appellate division from those who have served as justices of the municipal court for a term of 10 years or more, and are, therefore, particularly competent men. You will note that we have a small-claims court established in each one of the five boroughs of the city, and that the services of five judges are, therefore, needed continuously for this work.

Enclosed is a statement showing the actual salaries paid the present employees of the small-claims part of our court. Under old provisions made for political purposes, a certain number of assistant clerks were provided for the court. These assistant clerks draw a fixed salary and their services must be utilized where most beneficial. You will note that in Brooklyn four such assistant clerks are used and that in the Bronx two such assistant clerks are used. In an ideal adjustment one clerk in charge of small claims would be adequate with the other assistant clerks converted into docket clerks. However, an additional typist is necessary in Manhattan, Bronx, Brooklyn and Queens, and I am hoping that the budget director will permit us to have these four additional employees, at a salary which would be about \$1,200 apiece. As you will note, the work in Richmond is slight.

For an ideal adjustment in New York I would say that each borough, with the exception of Richmond, should have one clerk at \$3,000, 4 docket clerks at a salary ranging between \$1,740 and \$2,340, and a court attendant at a salary ranging between \$1,800 and \$2,280, and a typist at a salary of \$1,200 per annum. That would make a charge per borough of approximately \$12,360, to which must be added the salary of the referee or justice.

The establishment of the small-claims parts draws away a certain amount of work from the regular portions of the court, and so liberates for this work a certain number of employees. That is the reason that we have been able to function in New York without adding any additional help for the small-claims parts of our court.

The statement showing the actual salaries paid employees of the small-claims part of the court follows:

Total.....	\$51, 540	Brooklyn.....	\$16, 440
Manhattan.....	10, 740	Assistant clerks (4).....	12, 000
Clerk.....	2, 700	Docket clerk.....	2, 160
Docket clerk.....	2, 340	Court attendant.....	2, 280
Do.....	2, 160	Queens.....	9, 060
Do.....	1, 740	Assistant clerk.....	3, 000
Court attendant.....	1, 800	Docket clerk.....	2, 160
Bronx.....	13, 140	Do.....	1, 740
Assistant clerks (2).....	6, 000	Court attendant.....	2, 160
Docket clerk.....	2, 160	Richmond: Court attendant..	2, 160
Interpreter.....	2, 280		
Court attendant.....	2, 700		

A letter from Cleveland states:

As to the cost of operation, it is difficult to give you an accurate figure. The bailiff who handles summons and executions receives \$3,300 per year. The clerks or conciliators receive in salaries \$16,100 per year, for a total of \$19,400. This figure, bear in mind, is represented entirely by salaries paid and does not include any costs for stationery, printing, etc., figures for which are not available. If you care to, you might add to this figure the salary of the judge who sits in this court, which is \$9,000, \$6,000 of which is paid by the City of Cleveland and \$3,000 of which is paid by the County of Cuyahoga. It would not, however, be fair to charge the total judge's salary to the Conciliation Branch, as this same judge spends approximately half of his time on other types of cases.

The annual cost of operating this court could probably be figured at approximately \$24,000 by allocating a portion of the judge's salary to the cost, as well as estimating the cost of stationery, printing, etc.

Conclusion

The foregoing material discusses certain problems to be expected by those persons who are planning to start a movement for a small-claims court. Two points are made: The need for a fact-finding survey to determine the probable number of small claimants who might be expected to seek the aid of such a court, and the value of referring to statutes and rules of court in communities where this type of machinery has already been set up and is in operation. The enterprise should challenge the interest of many persons who desire to do their part in keeping the machinery for the administration of justice abreast of the social and economic needs of the community.

TREND OF CHILD LABOR, 1937 TO 1939

By ELLA ARVILLA MERRITT, *Industrial Division, U. S. Children's Bureau*

THE number of children under 16 years of age leaving school for work, as indicated by reports received in the Children's Bureau of employment certificates issued for children, was less in 1938 than in either 1937 or 1936, and a continuing decrease was shown for the first half of 1939. This bears out the experience of the past decade, that fluctuations in child labor follow those in general employment except when the direction has been reversed by State or Federal legal restrictions. Thus the year 1938, representing a period of decreasing general employment, was accompanied by a decrease in child labor. The fact that the first half of 1939 shows a continuing decrease in spite of increased general employment is believed to be due primarily to the effect of the Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938, which drastically restricted employment of children under 16 in industries producing goods for shipment in interstate commerce.

According to the United States Bureau of the Census, there were in 1930, 167,856 children 14 and 15 years of age and 972,770 young persons 16 and 17 years of age gainfully employed in nonagricultural pursuits in the United States. These figures represented a decrease from 1920, amounting to 54 percent in the younger age group and to 22 percent in the older age group. For the years since 1930, no census figures for child employment are available. The most nearly Nationwide records existing are those based on employment certificates, which are issued in practically all States for children between 14 and 16 years of age leaving school for work and in a smaller number of States for young workers 16 and 17 years of age. Since 1920, reports of such certificates have been sent to the Children's Bureau from an increasing number of States and cities throughout the United States.¹

In evaluating employment-certificate figures it must be remembered that they do not give the total number of children actually at work at any given time in the areas from which reports are received, but give only the number of children entering industry for the first time in a single year. Also, they do not fully represent all the children entering industry in those areas, because all States do not require certificates for work in all occupations, and because, of course, children who go to work illegally (i. e., without certificates) are not included. In spite of these disadvantages, these figures are sufficiently inclusive and representative to give some measure of the trend of gainful employment of young workers in the intercensal years. At the end of 1938 the Bureau was receiving employment-certificate data from areas in-

¹ The reports are collected as a joint project of the Industrial Division and the Division of Statistical Research of the Children's Bureau.

cluding almost 60 percent of the total population of the United States. These areas submitted reports in 1938 for more than 7,000 children 14 and 15 years of age going to work and for more than 75,000 young workers of 16 and 17 years.

Factors Influencing Employment of Children

Many factors are responsible for changes in the extent to which children are employed, the most important being child-labor legislation, public opinion (which to a large extent is reflected in child-labor legislation), and employment opportunities. These factors have resulted in a net decrease since 1920 in employment of children between 14 and 18 years of age, despite an increase in this age group of the population.²

For some years the conviction has been growing in the minds of the public that it is socially wasteful to allow children under 16 years of age to leave school for work. A generation ago, 14 rather than 16 years was the generally accepted minimum age for the entrance of children into industry. In 1919, however, and again in 1930 public opinion, crystallizing in the recommendations of the White House Conferences of those years, spoke for a basic minimum age of 16 in State child-labor laws. Scarcity of employment opportunities during the depression, and an increasing realization of the need for a better-trained citizenry to meet the complex social problems of the present day, have undoubtedly influenced the tendency to outlaw through State legislation the employment of children under 16 in industrial work.

The increasing number of children attending school beyond the elementary grades indicates a change in social custom that has undoubtedly decreased the number of children entering employment. In 1920 only 32 percent of the population 14 to 17 years of age, inclusive, were enrolled in secondary schools, compared with 67 percent in 1936. Enrollment in secondary schools increased from 2,494,676 children in 1920 to 4,799,867 in 1930, or 92 percent. In 1936, the latest year for which figures are available, the enrollment was 6,424,968, an increase of 34 percent over 1930.³

Legislation has also been a factor in reducing the number of children entering employment. In 1930 only Montana and Ohio had a basic minimum age of 16 years for employment. Between 1930 and 1938 eight additional States⁴ established this minimum. These eight

² Estimates indicate that the number of children of these ages has increased from 7,760,000 in 1920 to 9,813,000 in 1939. (National Resources Committee (now National Resources Planning Board). Population Statistics, vol. 1, National Data, table 1A, p. 1. Washington, October 1937.)

³ U. S. Office of Education Bulletin No. 2 (1937): Statistical Summary of Education, 1935-36 (being ch. I of vol. 1 of the Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1934-36), table 9, p. 12. Washington, 1939. Estimated population figures and enrollment figures are used for 1936.

⁴ Connecticut, New York, North Carolina, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, South Carolina, Utah, and Wisconsin. In 1939 two more States, Massachusetts and West Virginia, were added to this list.

States, where in 1938 (because of this legislative advance) very few children under 16 were permitted by law to leave school for work), in 1930 had accounted for 34 percent of the children under 16 years of age engaged in nonagricultural pursuits and 46 percent of those working in manufacturing and mechanical industries. An advance for the whole country was made in 1938, when the Fair Labor Standards Act was passed by Congress and through its child-labor provisions established a basic 16-year minimum age, applicable without regard to State laws, for employment in manufacturing, mining, and other industries producing goods for shipment in interstate commerce.⁵

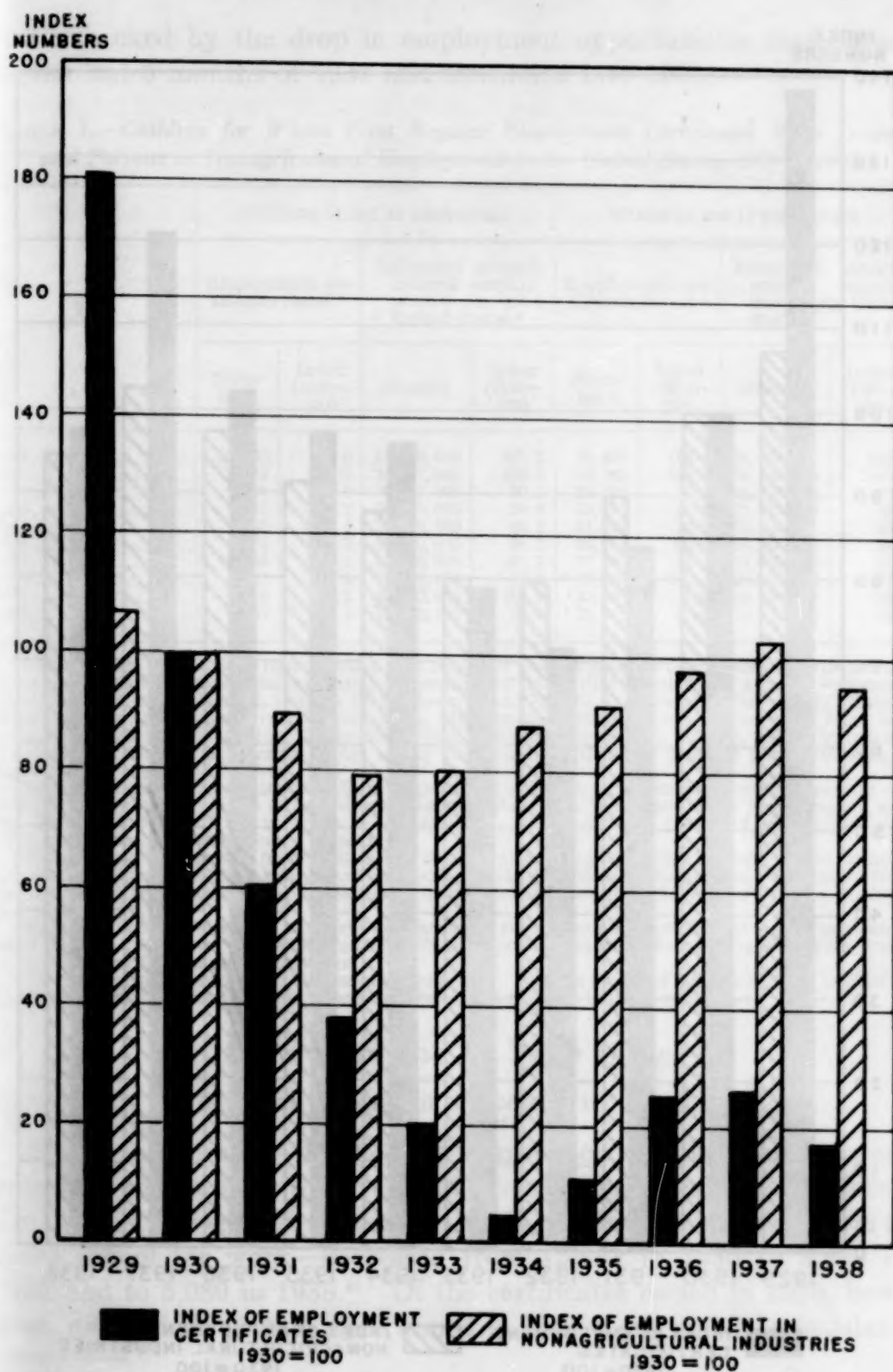
Variations in employment opportunities have also influenced the fluctuations in the numbers of children going to work. As pointed out, there has been a net decrease since 1920 in employment of children during the period as a whole. From year to year, however, the employment of both children 14 and 15 and those 16 and 17 years of age, has usually risen and fallen with the trend of general employment. The only exceptions have been for the younger group, and these have occurred in States where the minimum age has been raised to 16 and in the country as a whole when Nation-wide restrictive legislation has drastically narrowed opportunities for employment of children under 16. This is indicated by table 1 and the accompanying graphs (figs. 1 and 2), which compare from 1929 to 1938 the index numbers for first regular employment certificates,⁶ issued in areas where the legal minimum age under State law was not raised to 16, with the index of employment in nonagricultural industries.⁷ For young workers between 16 and 18 years of age the index of employment certification followed roughly the ups and downs of general employment, but for those between 14 and 16 this tendency was interrupted in 1933 and 1934 when a 16-year minimum under the NRA codes was in effect practically on a Nation-wide basis.⁸ Removal of the code restrictions in 1935 was followed in 1936 by an upward swing for employment of this younger group which continued

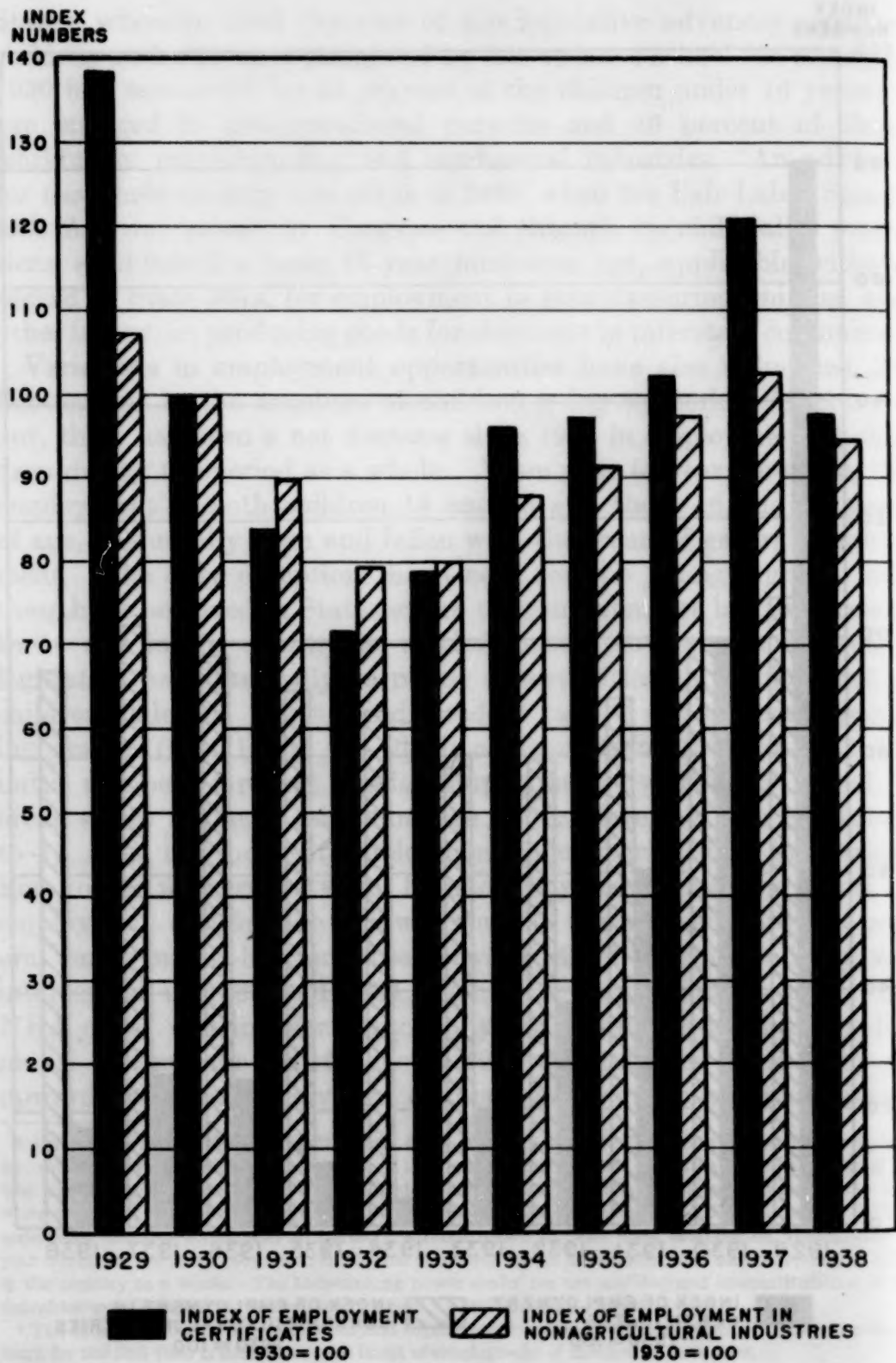
⁵ Act of June 25, 1938, Public No. 718 (75th Cong., 3d sess.), ch. 676. The act was passed June 25, 1938, but did not go into effect until October 24 of that year. Thus the first 6 months of 1939 represented the first continuous half year during which a Federal minimum-age standard was in effect since May 1935, when the codes under the National Industrial Recovery Administration were declared invalid. These codes were effective throughout an industry without regard to State lines, establishing, through the 16-year minimum age for employment, child-labor standards which were higher than any previously in effect in the country as a whole. The code-making power under the act was declared unconstitutional in the *Schechter* case (*Schechter v. United States*, 55 Sup. Ct. 837) on May 27, 1935.

⁶ The index number for the number of first regular employment certificates issued for children going to work for the first time is used as a rough index of employment of children of these ages.

⁷ The computed index of total nonagricultural employment in the United States, based on figures estimated by the U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, is used as reflecting types of full-time work in which young persons for whom employment certificates are required are likely to be engaged.

⁸ When the National Industrial Recovery Act was passed in 1933, a 16-year minimum age for employment was on the statute books of only four States—Montana, Ohio, Utah, and Wisconsin. Children for the most part were permitted to leave school for work at 14 years of age, if they had fulfilled certain requirements. In contrast, practically all the codes, beginning with that for the cotton-textile industry, effective July 17, 1933, prohibited the employment of children under 16, though there were a few exceptions.





until checked by the drop in employment opportunities that began in the last 6 months of 1937 and continued into 1938.

TABLE 1.—*Children for Whom First Regular Employment Certificates Were Issued, and Persons in Nonagricultural Employment in the United States, 1929 to 1938*

Year	Children 14 and 15 years of age				Minors 16 and 17 years of age			
	Employment certificates issued ¹		Estimated nonagricultural employment in the United States ²		Employment certificates issued ⁴		Estimated nonagricultural employment in the United States ³	
	Number ⁵	Index (1930=100)	Number	Index (1930=100)	Number ⁶	Index (1930=100)	Number	Index (1930=100)
1929.....	13,240	181.6	31,876,000	107.2	38,453	138.4	31,876,000	107.2
1930.....	7,289	100.0	29,727,000	100.0	27,793	100.0	29,727,000	100.0
1931.....	4,434	60.8	26,747,000	90.0	23,403	84.2	26,747,000	90.0
1932.....	2,781	38.2	23,713,000	79.8	19,972	71.9	23,713,000	79.8
1933.....	1,466	20.1	23,854,000	80.2	21,977	79.1	23,854,000	80.2
1934.....	361	5.0	26,150,000	88.0	26,754	96.3	26,150,000	88.0
1935.....	809	11.1	27,258,000	91.7	27,100	97.5	27,258,000	91.7
1936.....	1,853	25.4	29,017,000	97.6	⁶ 28,454	102.4	29,017,000	97.6
1937.....	1,919	26.3	30,552,000	102.8	⁶ 33,625	121.0	30,552,000	102.8
1938.....	1,247	17.1	28,222,000	94.9	⁶ 27,212	97.9	28,222,000	94.9

¹ Figures based upon reports from 27 cities with 100,000 or more population (1930 census) in which minimum age standards were not changed during the period, 1927-38. Cities included are: Atlanta, Baltimore, Chattanooga, Chicago, Denver, Detroit, Fort Wayne, Grand Rapids, Indianapolis, Kansas City (Kans.), Knoxville, Los Angeles, Louisville, Lowell, Lynn, Minneapolis, Nashville, Omaha, Peoria, St. Paul, San Francisco, Somerville, South Bend, Springfield (Mass.), Washington (D. C.), Wichita, and Wilmington.

² Figures for Detroit and Grand Rapids are for 15-year-old children; law does not permit issuance of certificates for 14-year-old children.

³ Source: Bureau of Labor Statistics, U. S. Department of Labor. The estimates cover all persons engaged in gainful work outside of agriculture, except for the CCC, WPA, and NYA work projects, and the CWA and FERA work programs in 1933 and 1934. The estimates presented here exclude officials, proprietors, and self-employed persons.

⁴ Figures based upon reports from 18 cities with 50,000 or more population (1930 census). Cities included are: Buffalo, Cincinnati, Columbus, Dayton, Grand Rapids, Hamtramck, Kalamazoo, Milwaukee, New Orleans, New York, Niagara Falls, Rochester, Saginaw, San Francisco, Springfield (Ohio), Toledo, Yonkers, and Youngstown.

⁵ Figures for cities in Wisconsin and New York are for 16-year-old minors; laws did not require issuance of certificates for minors over 16 until September 1935 in Wisconsin and September 1936 in New York State. Figures for New Orleans are for girls only.

⁶ Figures for Hamtramck are for 16-year-old minors only. Figures for San Francisco and the District of Columbia include certificates issued for work outside school hours and during vacation.

Children 14 and 15 Years of Age

NUMBER OF CHILDREN GOING TO WORK ⁹

Regular certificates.—In the area from which complete reports were received, the number of first regular employment certificates issued for 14- and 15-year-old children—that is, certificates allowing them to leave school for work—decreased from 15,551 in 1936 to 8,323 in 1937 and to 5,080 in 1938.¹⁰ Of the certificates issued in 1936, however, nearly half (6,891) were issued in New York and Rhode Island

⁹ This report deals with figures for both 1937 and 1938 as compared with previous years, since full discussion of the figures for these years has not been published previously. The latest published reports are *Trend of Child Labor, 1927-36* (reprinted from *Monthly Labor Review*, December 1937, as Serial No. R. 677); and *Employment-Certificate Statistics, 1937*, in *Social Statistics Supplement to The Child* (published by U. S. Children's Bureau), No. 4, June 1938, p. 10.

¹⁰ In a larger area, including States and cities that reported only the total number of certificates issued, the number decreased from 21,413 in 1936 to 11,701 in 1937 and to 7,431 in 1938. These figures are based upon reports received from 15 States, the District of Columbia, and 89 cities of 50,000 or more population in 21 other States.

cities where the basic minimum age was raised to 16 in the latter part of the year, and 592 were issued in North Carolina where a similar advance in State legislation was made in 1937. In areas in which the employment of children of 14 and 15 years was generally permitted by law during this 3-year period (i. e., in areas in which the minimum age for employment was not raised to 16) the number of children 14 and 15 years of age leaving school for work showed only a slight decrease from 1936 to 1937, but a substantial decrease was shown from 1937 to 1938 (table 2).

TABLE 2.—*Children 14 and 15 Years of Age for Whom First Regular Employment Certificates Were Issued, by 6-month Periods, January 1936 to June 1939*

Year	Number of certificates issued				
	All reporting areas ¹	Areas in which there were no changes in minimum-age laws during the period	Areas in which there were changes in minimum-age laws during the period		
			New York ²	Rhode Island ³	North Carolina ⁴
1936.....	15,551	8,068	6,508	293	592
January-June.....	9,943	3,198	6,157	293	295
July-December.....	5,608	4,870	441	0	297
1937.....	8,323	7,968	53	0	302
January-June.....	4,191	3,862	27	0	302
July-December.....	4,132	4,106	26	0	0
1938.....	5,080	5,062	18	0	0
January-June.....	2,425	2,413	12	0	0
July-December.....	2,655	2,649	6	0	0
1939: January-June.....	⁵ 1,908	1,900	8	0	0

¹ Figures are based upon reports from 12 States, the District of Columbia, and 130 cities of 50,000 or more population in 24 other States.

² Figures from 13 cities in New York, where a 16-year minimum-age law went into effect in September 1936.

³ Figures from 2 cities in Rhode Island, where a 16-year minimum-age law went into effect in July 1936.

⁴ Figures from the State of North Carolina, where a 16-year minimum-age law went into effect in July 1937.

⁵ Includes estimates for 2 States and 3 cities that reported 76 certificates issued during the period January to June 1938.

Preliminary figures for the first 6 months of 1939, compared with figures for the first 6 months of 1937 and 1938,¹¹ show a decrease in the number of children under 16 leaving school for work. There was a decrease from 4,191 in the first 6 months of 1937 to 2,425 in the first 6 months of 1938, or 42 percent; in the first 6 months of 1939 the number fell to 1,908, a drop of 21 percent as compared with the corresponding period in 1938. The drop between the first half of 1937 and the first half of 1938 corresponded roughly to the downward trend in nonagricultural employment; the drop between the corresponding periods in 1938 and 1939, however, was contrary to the upward employment trend. Thus, for the first time since the period when the codes under the National Industrial Recovery Act were in effect,

¹¹ Comparisons by corresponding 6-month periods in the 2 years, rather than by consecutive 6-month periods, are used, because of seasonal differences in proportions of certificates issued during the first and the last half of a year.

a decrease in the number of children under 16 leaving school for work occurred in spite of increased general employment.

Table 3 shows, for each State and city reporting, the number of children 14 and 15 years of age certificated for their first regular employment in the 3-year period, 1936 to 1938. It will be seen that the general trend downward in these years is not uniform from place to place. Although in 1937, for instance, the number of certificates issued dropped to almost zero in New York and Rhode Island because of the enactment of a basic 16-year minimum age, there was an actual increase from 1936 to 1937 in some cities and States, and in many the number of certificates issued remained practically the same.

TABLE 3.—Number of Children 14 and 15 Years of Age for Whom First Regular Employment Certificates Were Issued, 1936 to 1938

State or city	Number of certificates issued			State or city	Number of certificates issued		
	1936	1937	1938		1936	1937	1938
<i>Areas submitting complete reports, 1936-38</i>				<i>Areas submitting complete reports, 1936-38—Continued</i>			
Total.....	15,551	8,323	5,080	Iowa: Entire State.....	51	69	53
Alabama: Entire State.....	74	69	44	Cedar Rapids.....	1	0	4
Birmingham.....	17	22	14	Davenport.....	17	21	10
Mobile.....	28	44	19	Des Moines.....	8	4	12
Montgomery.....	20	1	7	Sioux City.....	4	2	0
Other areas.....	9	2	4	Other areas.....	21	42	27
California:				Kansas:			
Fresno.....	4	2	0	Kansas City.....	0	3	1
Glendale.....	7	4	5	Topeka.....	1	1	1
Long Beach.....	0	0	0	Wichita.....	1	3	1
Los Angeles.....	211	239	139	Kentucky: Entire State.....	208	298	235
Sacramento.....	21	15	8	Covington.....	11	11	7
San Diego.....	8	5	2	Louisville.....	215	254	196
San Francisco.....	20	14	11	Other areas.....	42	33	32
San Jose.....	0	0	0	Louisiana: Shreveport.....	0	0	0
Colorado: Denver.....	41	62	53	Maine: Entire State ¹	29	43	30
Connecticut: Entire State.....	901	817	299	Portland ²	5	7	1
Bridgeport.....	15	6	7	Other areas ²	24	36	29
Hartford.....	53	63	18	Maryland: Entire State.....	538	457	327
New Britain.....	34	53	32	Baltimore.....	457	414	304
New Haven.....	23	6	3	Other areas.....	81	43	23
Waterbury.....	99	82	15	Massachusetts:			
Other areas.....	677	607	224	Boston.....	434	389	272
Delaware: Wilmington.....	44	48	36	Brockton.....	22	27	11
District of Columbia.....	91	96	49	Cambridge.....	46	53	25
Florida:				Fall River.....	114	117	51
Miami.....	8	6	5	Holyoke.....	44	41	7
Tampa.....	2	2	0	Lawrence.....	149	104	48
Georgia: Atlanta.....	0	5	4	Lowell.....	51	43	27
Illinois:				Lynn.....	35	43	16
Chicago.....	12	11	8	Malden.....	15	14	7
Cicero.....	0	0	0	Medford.....	6	13	3
Decatur.....	2	4	3	New Bedford.....	242	240	104
East St. Louis.....	27	23	21	Newton.....	12	11	6
Evanston.....	2	0	0	Quincy.....	22	12	10
Oak Park.....	0	0	0	Somerville.....	19	27	26
Peoria.....	2	2	0	Springfield.....	69	58	25
Rockford.....	3	4	0	Michigan:			
Springfield.....	9	5	9	Detroit ¹	228	236	118
Indiana:				Flint ¹	2	0	0
East Chicago.....	0	0	0	Grand Rapids ¹	47	98	25
Evansville.....	0	7	16	Hamtramck ¹	2	10	3
Ft. Wayne.....	0	0	0	Highland Park ¹	0	0	0
Gary.....	0	27	6	Jackson ¹	3	0	0
Hammond.....	0	1	0	Kalamazoo ¹	2	5	1
Indianapolis.....	19	25	10	Lansing ¹	15	9	4
South Bend.....	5	3	6	Pontiac ¹	5	28	13
Terre Haute.....	0	1	0	Saginaw ¹	4	0	0

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 3.—Number of Children 14 and 15 Years of Age for Whom First Regular Employment Certificates Were Issued, 1936 to 1938—Continued

State or city	Number of certificates issued			State or city	Number of certificates issued		
	1936	1937	1938		1936	1937	1938
<i>Areas submitting complete reports, 1936-38—Continued</i>				<i>Areas submitting complete reports, 1936-38—Continued</i>			
Minnesota: Entire State.....	48	38	23	Ohio—Continued.			
Duluth.....	0	3	0	Toledo.....	2	4	7
Minneapolis.....	10	11	12	Youngstown.....	1	2	1
St. Paul.....	30	23	9	Oklahoma:			
Other areas.....	8	1	2	Oklahoma City.....	5	3	1
Missouri:				Tulsa.....	35	74	46
Kansas City.....	67	66	37	Oregon: Entire State.....	8	11	9
St. Louis.....	86	162	63	Portland.....	1	6	4
Springfield.....	50	41	37	Other areas.....	7	5	5
Nebraska:				Pennsylvania:			
Lincoln.....	0	1	0	Altoona.....	7	9	3
Omaha.....	132	114	98	Bethlehem.....	9	6	12
New Hampshire: Entire State.....	151	134	89	Chester.....	15	26	28
Manchester.....	15	31	28	Erie.....	32	17	10
Other areas.....	136	103	61	Harrisburg.....	0	0	0
New Jersey:				Johnstown.....	34	45	28
Atlantic City.....	106	104	121	Lancaster.....	3	0	7
Bayonne.....	1	3	0	McKeesport.....	29	12	4
Camden.....	74	42	24	Philadelphia.....	152	143	159
East Orange.....	14	19	16	Pittsburgh.....	118	111	40
Elizabeth.....	137	103	75	Reading.....	0	0	0
Hoboken.....	146	125	100	Scranton.....	50	40	44
Irvington.....	37	26	18	Wilkes-Barre.....	58	100	59
Jersey City.....	695	622	454	York.....	136	100	67
Newark.....	584	591	473	Rhode Island:			
Passaic.....	83	57	35	Pawtucket ¹	56	0	0
Paterson.....	264	262	164	Providence ¹	237	0	0
Trenton.....	336	334	198	Tennessee:			
Union City.....	104	125	66	Chattanooga.....	28	17	15
New York:				Knorrville.....	50	46	47
Albany ¹	44	5	0	Memphis.....	44	74	64
Binghamton ¹	7	0	0	Nashville.....	36	24	11
Buffalo ¹	203	0	0	Utah: Salt Lake City.....	0	0	0
Mt. Vernon ¹	14	0	0	Vermont: Entire State.....	0	8	4
New Rochelle ¹	6	0	0	Virginia: Norfolk.....	1	9	5
New York City ¹	5,884	40	17	Washington: Seattle.....	32	24	22
Niagara Falls ¹	0	1	0	West Virginia:			
Rochester ¹	73	0	0	Charleston.....	12	15	10
Schenectady ¹	27	0	1	Huntington.....	27	42	40
Syracuse ¹	124	0	0	Wheeling.....	23	52	9
Troy ¹	32	0	0	Wisconsin: Entire State.....	1	0	6
Utica ¹	143	1	0	Milwaukee.....	0	0	1
Yonkers ¹	41	6	0	Other areas.....	1	0	5
North Carolina: Entire State ¹	592	302	0				
Ohio:				<i>Areas submitting incomplete reports, 1936-38</i>			
Akron.....	0	3	0	Arkansas: Entire State.....	179	64	4
Canton.....	0	0	0	Little Rock.....	159	46	0
Cincinnati.....	0	0	0	Other areas.....	120	18	4
Cleveland.....	0	12	9	Louisiana: New Orleans.....	1302	1395	1238
Cleveland Heights.....	0	0	0	Massachusetts: Entire State.....	2,397	2,237	1,281
Columbus.....	0	0	0	New Jersey: Entire State.....	4,889	4,711	3,447
Dayton.....	9	11	12	New York: Entire State ¹	9,035	88	23
Hamilton.....	0	0	1	Virginia: Richmond.....	136	29	21
Lakewood.....	2	4	3				
Springfield.....	5	6	4				

¹ Includes certificates issued for work outside school hours and during vacation.² In Maine and Michigan practically all the certificates were issued for children 15 years of age, which is the minimum age for certification; a few certificates were issued for 14-year-old minors under special circumstances.³ 16-year minimum-age law went into effect in New York in September and in Rhode Island in July 1936.⁴ 16-year minimum-age law went into effect in June 1937.

Certificates for work during vacation and outside school hours.—The recent tendency in child-labor legislation toward raising the minimum age for work during school hours to 16 years, while at the same time permitting employment at 14 years outside school hours and during vacation, has increased interest in the extent to which children under 16 are working after school hours and during the summer months.

The number of 14- and 15-year-old children certificated for such work was larger in both 1937 and 1938 than it was in 1936 (20,838 in 1937 and 18,300 in 1938 as compared with 16,843 in 1936).¹²

The number of certificates issued for part-time work was considerably larger in each year than the number of certificates issued for regular or full-time employment, though representing reports from a smaller area. This seems to be indicative of a tendency for children under 16 years of age to obtain part-time employment when openings for full-time jobs are closed to them.

SEX DISTRIBUTION

The proportion of boys and of girls under 16 years of age leaving school for work has remained fairly constant during the past 3 years, somewhat more than half being boys and somewhat less than half, girls (table 4). During the years for which reports have been obtained by the Bureau, the only period when more certificates were issued for girls under 16 than for boys was from 1933 to 1935 when, because of the effect of the NRA codes, the employment of children of these ages in industry and trade was greatly reduced, and the greater part of their employment was in domestic and personal service, in which customarily more girls than boys are engaged.

TABLE 4.—*Sex Distribution of Children 14 and 15 Years of Age for Whom First Regular Employment Certificates Were Issued, 1936 to 1938*¹

Sex	Number			Percent		
	1936 ²	1937 ³	1938	1936	1937	1938
Both sexes.....	15,551	8,323	5,080	100.0	100.0	100.0
Boys.....	8,358	4,556	2,766	53.7	54.7	54.4
Girls.....	7,193	3,767	2,314	46.3	45.3	45.6

¹ This table includes figures based upon reports from 12 States, the District of Columbia, and 130 cities of 50,000 or more population in 24 other States. Figures for the State of Maine and the cities in Michigan are for 15-year-old children; laws do not permit issuance of certificates for 14-year-old children.

² 16-year minimum-age law went into effect in Rhode Island in July 1936 and in New York in September 1936.

³ 16-year minimum-age law went into effect in North Carolina in July 1937.

SCHOOLING

More than two-thirds (67 percent) of the 14- and 15-year-old children for whom first regular employment certificates were issued in 1938 had completed the eighth or a higher grade in school (table 5). This percentage had decreased from 72 in 1936. However, these figures probably do not indicate changes in the educational qualifications of children going to work. The decrease may be attributed to the fact that in recent years some States with comparatively high grade requirements for working children have put

¹² Figures are based on reports received from 6 States, the District of Columbia, and 96 cities of 50,000 or more population on 18 other States.

into effect a 16-year minimum age, so that proportionately more of the States in which certificates were issued in 1938 were States with a low-grade requirement than was the case in 1936.

TABLE 5.—*Highest School Grade Completed by Children 14 and 15 Years of Age for Whom First Regular Employment Certificates Were Issued, 1936 to 1938*¹

Highest grade completed	Number			Percent		
	1936 ²	1937 ²	1938	1936	1937	1938
Total.....	15,551	8,323	5,080			
Grade reported.....	14,612	7,777	4,636	100.0	100.0	100.0
Special or ungraded.....	232	217	213	1.6	2.8	4.6
Grade 6 or lower.....	1,843	911	597	12.6	11.7	12.9
Grade 7.....	1,967	1,246	739	13.5	16.0	15.9
Grade 8 or higher.....	10,570	5,403	3,087	72.3	69.5	66.6
Grade not reported.....	939	546	444			

¹ This table includes figures based upon reports from 12 States, the District of Columbia, and 130 cities of 50,000 or more population in 24 other States. Figures for the State of Maine and the cities in Michigan are for 15-year-old children; laws do not permit the issuance of certificates for 14-year-old children.

² 16-year minimum-age law went into effect in Rhode Island in July 1936 and in New York in September 1936.

³ 16-year minimum-age law went into effect in North Carolina in July 1937.

OCCUPATIONS ENTERED

Regular employment.—A comparatively small number of the children under 16 leaving school for work are entering manufacturing and mechanical industries. In areas for which comparable figures are available for 1936, 1937, and 1938, the proportion of children of 14 and 15 years entering these industries has ranged between 12 and 14 percent. Very slightly larger proportions, between 13 and 16 percent, entered mercantile work, while 42 to 44 percent, entered the domestic and personal service occupations. Less than 4 percent of the group were found in office work in any of these years (table 6).

TABLE 6.—*Occupations Entered by Children 14 and 15 Years of Age for Whom First Regular Employment Certificates Were Issued, 1936 to 1938*¹

Occupation	Number			Percent		
	1936 ²	1937 ²	1938	1936	1937	1938
Total.....	15,551	8,323	5,080			
Occupation reported.....	15,420	8,206	4,923	100.0	100.0	100.0
Manufacturing and mechanical.....	1,882	1,169	579	12.2	14.2	11.7
Mercantile.....	2,435	1,082	777	15.8	13.2	15.8
Office.....	559	129	63	3.6	1.6	1.3
Outside messenger and delivery.....	3,285	1,652	912	21.3	20.1	18.5
Domestic and personal service.....	6,726	3,619	2,047	43.6	44.1	41.6
Own home.....	3,315	1,213	1,026	21.5	14.8	20.9
Other private household.....	1,796	1,146	804	11.7	14.0	16.3
Other domestic and personal service.....	631	389	217	4.1	4.7	4.4
Personal service, type not reported.....	4984	4871		6.3	10.6	
Other occupation.....	533	555	545	3.5	6.8	11.1
Occupation not reported.....	131	117	157			

¹ Figures are based upon reports from 12 States and the District of Columbia, and from 130 cities of 50,000 or more population in 24 other States. Figures for the State of Maine and the cities in Michigan are for 15-year-old children; laws do not permit the issuance of certificates for 14-year-old children.

² 16-year minimum-age law went into effect in Rhode Island in July 1936 and in New York in September 1936.

³ 16-year minimum-age law went into effect in North Carolina in July 1937.

⁴ Most of these were certificates issued in Connecticut, chiefly for domestic and personal service.

Preliminary reports of regular employment certificates issued in the first 6 months of 1939 indicate a considerable decrease in the percentage of 14- and 15-year-old workers entering manufacturing and mechanical industries, a decrease undoubtedly due to the restrictive effect of the 16-year minimum age set by the Fair Labor Standards Act.¹³ The proportion going into the domestic and personal service occupations increased correspondingly.

Employment during vacation and outside school hours.—The percentages of children 14 and 15 years of age going to work in specified occupations outside school hours and during vacation reflect the differences in types of part-time and summer employment available as compared with the jobs offering opportunities for full-time work. The chief opportunity for part-time employment for these children is in outside messenger and delivery service; slightly more than two-fifths of the children in each year, 1936 to 1938, found their first jobs in this employment. Mercantile occupations absorbed 19 percent in 1936 but only 13 percent in 1938. The percentage of children entering manufacturing and mechanical occupations was lower in 1938 (6 percent) than in either of the 2 preceding years, when it was 9 percent.

Minors 16 and 17 Years of Age

NUMBER OF MINORS GOING TO WORK ¹⁴

The problem of gainful employment of young persons between 16 and 18 years of age requires a different approach from that of the younger boys and girls. It has been very generally advocated that the years of a child's life up to 16 should be devoted to mental and social growth rather than to full-time wage earning. On the other hand, it has been thought that for a large group of minors of 16 and 17 years entrance to employment may be desirable, if properly safeguarded; suitable educational opportunity, however, should be available for those who wish to attend school, and no youth between 16 and 18 should be both out of school and without useful employment. Labor legislation for minors of this older age group is needed chiefly to protect them from long hours, low wages, dangerous work, and other undesirable conditions of employment. Thus Federal and State child-labor legislation, while tending to keep children under 16 out of industry, has had no such definite restrictive effect upon employment of workers of 16 and 17 years, and prohibitive legislation for children

¹³ Since the child-labor provisions of the Fair Labor Standards Act apply only to establishments producing goods for interstate commerce, they would affect many, but not all, manufacturing establishments; they would not apply, however, to certain kinds of mechanical employment, as work in repair shops or as helpers in the building trades, which are here classified under "manufacturing and mechanical," in accordance with the usage of the United States Census.

¹⁴ The figures discussed here relate to certificates issued in the years 1936, 1937, and 1938. During 1939 there has been an increased demand for employment certificates for minors between 16 and 18 years of age because, in most States, State employment or age certificates are accepted as proof of age under the Fair Labor Standards Act.

under 16 may have the effect of opening employment opportunities for older minors.

The number of minors 16 and 17 years of age for whom first regular employment certificates ¹⁵ were issued in the areas for which complete reports were received for each of the 3 years, 1936-38, was, roughly, between 70,000 and 95,000 (table 7). Although the number for 1938 was less than in either of the 2 preceding years, there was an increase in 1937 as compared with 1936.¹⁶ This increase may be attributed chiefly to the effect of the New York law, operative September 1, 1936, raising to 16 the minimum age for employment, and resulting in more openings for slightly older workers. In a few cities the number of certificates issued was greater in 1938 than in 1936 and in many places there was little difference in the numbers issued in the 3 years

TABLE 7.—Number of Minors 16 and 17 Years of Age for Whom First Regular Employment Certificates Were Issued, 1936 to 1938

State or city	Number of certificates issued			State or city	Number of certificates issued		
	1936	1937	1938		1936	1937	1938
<i>Areas submitting complete reports, 1936-38</i>				<i>Areas submitting complete reports, 1936-38—Con.</i>			
Total.....	84,629	94,037	69,540	Michigan:			
Alabama: Entire State.....	1,575	1,226	1,849	Detroit.....	6,361	7,807	5,446
Birmingham.....	192	138	170	Flint.....	595	633	335
Mobile.....	44	41	64	Grand Rapids.....	549	673	412
Montgomery.....	162	147	136	Hamtramck.....	196	189	168
Other areas.....	1,377	1,000	1,679	Highland Park.....	207	247	151
California:				Jackson.....	50	70	25
Berkeley.....	101	49	77	Kalamazoo.....	41	64	31
Fresno.....	183	155	230	Lansing.....	171	112	61
Glendale.....	91	86	89	Pontiac.....	82	300	188
Long Beach.....	149	87	79	Saginaw.....	12	237	128
Los Angeles.....	2,739	2,547	1,980	New York:			
Sacramento.....	280	299	185	Albany.....	355	367	305
San Diego.....	322	306	232	Binghamton.....	177	218	157
San Francisco.....	1,075	976	1,650	Buffalo.....	2,254	2,499	1,808
San Jose.....	265	519	287	Mount Vernon.....	119	163	133
District of Columbia.....	2,395	2,667	1,967	New Rochelle.....	70	72	60
Louisiana: New Orleans.....	163	227	202	New York City.....	20,552	27,915	24,116
Massachusetts:				Niagara Falls.....	139	177	51
Boston.....	3,744	3,303	2,361	Rochester.....	839	1,009	697
Brockton.....	321	278	120	Schenectady.....	270	320	151
Cambridge.....	866	838	621	Syracuse.....	408	625	565
Fall River.....	1,472	1,495	1,167	Troy.....	162	191	193
Holyoke.....	306	320	110	Utica.....	150	349	340
Lawrence.....	773	758	739	Yonkers.....	307	390	388
Lowell.....	1,315	1,222	709	Ohio:			
Lynn.....	345	305	187	Akron.....	733	487	729
Malden.....	334	282	202	Canton.....	443	609	362
Medford.....	325	382	248	Cincinnati.....	1,578	1,500	1,240
New Bedford.....	1,334	966	451	Cleveland.....	6,521	6,339	4,220
Newton.....	104	100	72	Cleveland Heights.....	24	24	9
Quincy.....	431	493	290	Columbus.....	1,017	990	747
Somerville.....	891	838	509	Dayton.....	648	750	366
Springfield.....	1,158	1,050	272	Hamilton.....	74	82	59

See footnotes at end of table.

¹⁵ In some States where children are not required to attend school after reaching the age of 16, regular certificates may be issued to all children applying who have met the legal requirement without regard to whether or not they are attending school. For this reason, these figures include, in all years, some children working outside school hours and during vacation.

¹⁶ In a larger area including States and cities that reported only the total number of certificates issued, the number increased from 89,657 in 1936 to 102,018 in 1937 and decreased to 75,595 in 1938. These figures are based on reports received from 4 States, the District of Columbia, and 67 cities of 50,000 or more population in 10 other States;

TABLE 7.—Number of Minors 16 and 17 Years of Age for Whom First Regular Employment Certificates Were Issued, 1936 to 1938—Continued

State or city	Number of certificates issued			State or city	Number of certificates issued		
	1936	1937	1938		1936	1937	1938
<i>Areas submitting complete reports, 1936-38—Con.</i>				<i>Areas submitting complete reports, 1936-38—Con.</i>			
Ohio—Continued.				Pennsylvania—Con.			
Lakewood.....	101	100	51	Wilkes-Barre.....	164	207	217
Springfield.....	330	369	184	York.....	110	91	66
Toledo.....	1,222	1,372	1,097	Tennessee:			
Youngstown.....	816	846	444	Knoxville.....	40	58	13
Oklahoma:				Nashville.....	177	185	80
Oklahoma City.....	135	51	48	Utah: Salt Lake City.....	122	175	130
Tulsa.....	151	161	162	Washington: Seattle.....	380	354	243
Oregon: Entire State.....	478	438	203	Wisconsin: Entire State.....	4,323	5,276	3,012
Portland.....	257	249	143	Milwaukee.....	1,457	1,714	922
Other areas.....	221	189	60	Other areas.....	2,866	3,562	2,090
Pennsylvania:				<i>Areas submitting incomplete reports, 1936-38</i>			
Altoona.....	69	59	29	New York: Entire State.....	39,830	41,376	35,019
Bethlehem.....	433	495	144	North Carolina: Entire State.....	(⁶)	(⁶)	4,722
Chester.....	248	157	74	Asheville.....	(⁶)	(⁶)	52
Erie.....	49	59	92	Charlotte.....	(⁶)	(⁶)	212
Harrisburg.....	48	94	79	Durham.....	(⁶)	(⁶)	67
Johnstown.....	49	86	41	Greensboro.....	(⁶)	(⁶)	216
Lancaster.....	92	148	128	Winston-Salem.....	(⁶)	(⁶)	94
McKeesport.....	16	42	35	Other areas.....	(⁶)	(⁶)	4,081
Philadelphia.....	4,870	4,903	3,346				
Pittsburgh.....	780	880	601				
Reading.....	1,043	839	358				
Scranton.....	313	320	237				

¹ Figures include only 16-year-old minors.

² Includes certificates issued for work outside school hours and during vacation.

³ Includes certificates issued for girls; law does not require certificates for boys.

⁴ Law effective September 1936 requiring certificates for 17-year-old minors; figures for 1936 include 16-year-old minors for calendar year and 17-year-old minors for September through December.

⁵ Law effective September 1936, requiring certificates for 17-year-old minors; figures for 1936 include 16-year-old minors for calendar year and 17-year-old minors for September through December. Includes certificates issued for work outside school hours and during vacation.

⁶ Data not reported. Law effective July 1937 requiring certificates for 16- and 17-year-old minors.

SEX DISTRIBUTION

The proportion of boys and girls among the 16- and 17-year-old workers for whom first regular certificates were issued in the period 1936-38 was approximately the same as for the younger group, somewhat more than half being boys and somewhat less than half, girls (table 8).

TABLE 8.—Sex Distribution of Minors 16 and 17 Years of Age for Whom First Regular Employment Certificates Were Issued, 1936 to 1938 ¹

Sex	Number			Percent		
	1936	1937	1938	1936	1937	1938
Both sexes.....	84,629	94,937	69,540	100.0	100.0	100.0
Boys.....	45,634	52,403	36,460	53.9	55.2	52.4
Girls.....	38,995	42,534	33,080	46.1	44.8	47.6

¹ This table includes figures based upon reports from 3 States, the District of Columbia, and 80 cities of 50,000 or more population in 11 other States.

SCHOOLING

Eighty-six percent of the 16- and 17-year-old boys and girls for whom first regular employment certificates were issued in 1938 had

completed the eighth or a higher grade in school (table 9). As would be expected, it was considerably larger than the 67 percent of the younger age group that had attained this grade.

TABLE 9.—*Highest School Grade Completed by Minors 16 and 17 Years of Age for Whom First Regular Employment Certificates were Issued, 1936 to 1938*¹

Highest grade completed	Number			Percent		
	1936	1937	1938	1936	1937	1938
Total.....	84,629	94,937	69,540			
Grade completed reported.....	71,884	79,784	62,687	100.0	100.0	100.0
Special or ungraded.....	1,237	1,232	888	1.7	1.5	1.4
Grade 6 or lower.....	4,512	4,395	3,438	6.3	5.5	5.5
Grade 7.....	5,445	5,636	4,356	7.6	7.1	6.9
Grade 8 or higher.....	60,690	68,521	54,005	84.4	85.9	86.2
Grade not reported.....	12,745	15,153	6,853			

¹ This table includes figures based upon reports from 3 States, the District of Columbia, and 80 cities of 50,000 or more population in 11 other States.

OCCUPATIONS ENTERED

In the period 1936–38, openings in manufacturing and mechanical industries were more frequent for the 16- and 17-year-old boys and girls than for those under 16. However, the percentage of the older group entering these occupations decreased from 34 percent in 1936 to 25 percent in 1938. There was a corresponding increase in the proportion of children entering outside messenger and delivery work. Somewhat less than one-fifth of the group entered mercantile establishments and about one-fourth entered domestic and personal service occupations (table 10).

Contrary to the situation for the children of 14 and 15 years, there appear for the 16- and 17-year-old workers no marked changes in the occupational distribution in the first half of 1939 as compared with 1938, as this group was affected only indirectly, if at all, by the minimum-age provisions of the Fair Labor Standards Act.

TABLE 10.—*Occupations Entered by Minors 16 and 17 Years of Age for Whom First Regular Employment Certificates were Issued, 1936 to 1938*¹

Occupation	Number			Percent		
	1936	1937	1938	1936	1937	1938
Total.....	² 85,156	³ 95,385	69,540			
Occupation reported.....	60,837	87,556	63,937	100.0	100.0	100.0
Manufacturing and mechanical.....	20,447	25,578	15,694	33.6	29.2	24.5
Mercantile.....	11,588	15,240	10,841	19.0	17.4	17.0
Office.....	2,229	5,392	3,094	3.7	6.2	4.8
Outside messenger and delivery.....	9,055	17,464	13,258	14.9	19.9	20.7
Domestic and personal service.....	14,688	19,890	17,745	24.1	22.7	27.8
Own home.....	4,937	7,484	7,765	8.1	8.6	12.1
Other private household.....	5,843	6,948	6,171	9.6	7.9	9.7
Other domestic and personal service.....	3,908	5,458	3,809	6.4	6.2	6.0
Other occupation.....	2,830	3,992	3,305	4.7	4.6	5.2
Occupation not reported.....	24,319	7,829	5,603			

¹ Figures are based upon reports from 3 States and the District of Columbia, and from 80 cities of 50,000 or more population in 11 other States. ² Includes 527 reissued certificates. ³ Includes 448 reissued certificates.

Wartime Emergency Controls

PUBLIC WORKS EMPLOYMENT IN BERMUDA

SPECIAL legislation was adopted in Bermuda on October 20, 1939, in order to establish machinery for the alleviation of unemployment during the wartime emergency.¹ The Bermuda Service Corps Act of 1939 is to continue in effect until December 31, 1940. It provides for raising a civilian corps of workers to carry out public works. The corps is to consist of a commandant and such number of officers, superintendents, and men of such grades and ranks and at such wages as may be directed periodically by the Governor-in-council. This body is also authorized to reduce the size of the corps and dissolve it in its discretion. It was expected that wages below the level of private industry would be established to prevent attracting workers from regular employments.

Although the corps is to be composed of civilians, the law prescribes a semimilitary organization. The commandant, who is responsible for administration, and the officers are appointees of the Governor for such periods as he may designate. Superintendents are in turn appointees of the commandant and he may remove them from office. Male citizens who have attained the age of 16 are eligible for enrollment at the discretion of any officer of the corps. If an applicant is refused because of lack of suitability, he may appeal to the commandant, whose decision is final. All members of the corps must sign an oath of allegiance.

Although rates of wages are not established under the terms of the legislation, it is provided that a married workman is to receive 1s. per day above the rate of pay approved by the Governor-in-council for the grade in which the married man serves. No person may be paid until he is put to work and no payment may be made for time lost unless he produces a certificate from a physician or district nurse stating that his absence was due to his own illness or the dangerous illness of his wife or child. Payment for such absence may not be made for more than 2 days in any week.

Workers must carry out approved work allotted to them during the workday and must obey all orders. Approved work is defined to include any task incidental to it. Working hours may not exceed 9

¹ Report from Harold L. Williamson, American consul at Hamilton.

per day. Persons enrolled may be required to work at any place within the Bermuda Islands, including the territorial waters.

Members must give 1 week's notice if they wish to be discharged, unless the officer in charge waives this requirement. The commandant may discharge a worker for incapacity, if the worker has sufficient means of livelihood, in order to reduce the size of the corps, and for a number of major offenses which are listed in the law. In the latter case the offender is liable to a fine, imprisonment, or both. A small fine, reduction in grade, or dismissal may be imposed for a minor offense. A person who is dismissed may not be enrolled again without the express sanction of the commandant.



CANADIAN WARTIME MEASURES

AMONG the measures recently taken in Canada to meet the exigencies of war are the broadening of the scope of the Dominion Industrial Disputes Investigation Act, the expansion of the youth-training program, and consideration of the public health and employment services from the point of view of war needs.¹

Extension of Industrial Disputes Investigation Act

The provisions of the Dominion Industrial Disputes Investigation Act have been broadened to apply to any dispute between employers and employees in Canada engaged in war work, including munitions, supplies, and defense projects, according to an announcement of the Minister of Labor on November 7, 1939. This extension became effective through an Order in Council under the War Measures Act for the purpose of providing facilities for averting strikes and lock-outs, in all essential war activities.

Under ordinary conditions the Dominion Industrial Disputes Investigation Act is applicable only to industrial controversies in mines and certain public utilities, among them communication and transportation. It was felt that this new order would contribute substantially in insuring maximum production of the necessities for war.

Expansion of Youth-Training Activities

Projects in the Dominion-Provincial Training Program will be expanded in order to aid Canadian war efforts, the Minister of Labor reported on November 6, 1939. These projects will be carried on in all Provinces that have recommended and approved them, and the work will be done in over 400 centers. The young people will be given physical training and instruction in health, first aid, citizenship, and other subjects.

¹ Data are from Canadian Labor Gazette (Ottawa), November 1939.

Last year the enrollment of jobless young persons in these projects was more than 20,000 and twice that number is expected this year.

In the summer of 1939 the conservation and development of natural resources in forestry, mining, and prospecting, were included in the work done under the youth-training program, more than 6,000 young men being enrolled in such activities.

In training the enrollees for industry, the attempt has been made to select occupations in which there will be a growing demand for skilled men in war-contract work, especially in the metal trades.

Rural youth are being trained in various subjects concerning home-craft and agriculture. Farm mechanics, conservation, and utilization of foods, homecraft, and handicrafts are among the activities emphasized. It is provided that rural youth also shall receive physical training and instruction in health, first aid, and citizenship.

Employment and Health Service

A conference of Dominion and Provincial officials took place in Ottawa on October 16 and 17, 1939, to determine the policy of the Canadian Employment Service for the maintenance of adequate numbers of skilled and semiskilled workers to meet the wartime demands of industry. It was decided at that meeting to conduct immediately a nation-wide survey to ascertain the availability of skilled and semiskilled workers with reference to the requirements for placing large contracts for war materials by the Canadian and British Governments and to inaugurate a training system for aviators for the Empire.

Health Problems

A conference of the Dominion Council of Health was held in Ottawa on October 11 and 12, 1939, for the discussion of problems concerned with the national war effect. Among the subjects discussed were: Federal and Provincial health measures and services for soldiers; health hazards in the production of munitions; safeguarding the nutrition and food supply of soldiers and civilians; child care during the war; systems of keeping medical war records; and reciprocal reporting of communicable diseases.



COORDINATION AND UTILIZATION OF LABOR IN FRANCE

THE law which is the basis for the measures taken in regard to the production and labor requirements in France, during the present war, was passed July 11, 1938. That law instituted the measures designed to enable the country to pass from peacetime to wartime organization and provided for mobilization of the armed forces and of the economic

resources of the country. Various decrees¹ supplementing the provisions of the July 1938 law were passed prior to and since the outbreak of war.

The 1938 law provided for the requisitioning of both industry and labor in the event of war. It required the registry of all male citizens over the age of 18 years in order to secure complete data regarding their occupational qualifications and other necessary information, and provided that after mobilization all Frenchmen not subject to military obligations or enlisted in the passive defense of the country could be requisitioned either temporarily or permanently. Persons thus requisitioned could be placed according to their training and ability either in the public administration and services, or in other establishments and services functioning in the interests of the nation. The extension of this legislation to Algeria and the colonies was to be fixed later by administrative regulations.

A decree of November 28, 1938, fixed the conditions under which the services of civilians can be requisitioned, including both Frenchmen and the native populations of the French dependencies. The requisitioning may be either collective or individual, and may extend to all their services or be limited to certain services supplementing their regular activities. Persons in receipt of a public retirement pension may be recalled to active service.

The requisitioning of a person's services does not entitle him to any payment except his salary or wage. In cases in which the occupation existed in peacetime, the remuneration is fixed at the initial salary of the position, while if the requisition maintains a person in the post he was already occupying, the salary or wage he was receiving is maintained. If the position is a new one, the salary is fixed according to a comparable employment in time of peace. In the case of wage-paid employment, the remuneration is fixed by the requisitioning authority on the basis of normal rates established by the decrees of April 10, 1937, concerning working conditions under Government contracts. Persons whose services are requisitioned will benefit by the provisions of labor and social legislation, as far as circumstances permit.

A decree of September 15, 1939, provided that the Minister of Labor should have charge, throughout the entire period of the war, of the organization, regulation, and utilization of labor, his duties being (1) to assemble and centralize, with the assistance of the Ministers of Agriculture, Public Works, and Armament, information relative to the general requirements of all the public services and of private industry; (2) to secure recruitment of civil labor of both sexes, taking into account the technical information supplied by these

¹ Journal Officiel, Paris, issues of July 13 and November 29, 1938, September 6, 12, 16, 17, 27, 29, October 30, and November 2, 1939.

Ministers; (3) to determine the best utilization of North African, colonial, and foreign labor; (4) to organize and control the occupational distribution of the labor which can be turned into account for the needs of the national defense and economic life in time of war; and (5) to fix, in agreement with the Ministries concerned, the general regulation of working conditions for the different classes of labor. These classes include personnel subject to mobilization, who are placed on special assignments or deferred call to service; personnel of reinforcement units; requisitioned personnel of either sex; civil personnel having contracted to render service under the provisions of the 1938 law for the general organization of the nation in time of war; North African and colonial labor; foreign labor; woman workers; and prisoners of war. Of these groups, those liable to mobilization, and war prisoners, are subject to military laws and regulations and discipline.

The occupational and geographical allotment of the personnel between public and private employing services—military or civil, industrial, commercial, or agricultural—is made by the Minister of Labor in agreement with the competent administrations.

Assignment of personnel to establishments and farms, and changes to be made between these enterprises, are effected by the Minister of Labor, with the assistance of the administrations concerned, in such a way as to secure complete utilization of the labor supply.

Recall of mobilized men who, because of their technical qualifications, are regarded as indispensable in establishments working for the national defense, may be proposed by the Minister of Labor to the Ministers of National Defense, War, Marine, and Air, who alone have the power to make decisions.

General control of labor under the Minister of Labor is vested in officials holding this power under present laws and regulations, in labor inspectors, or in special officials who may be given military rank. In agriculture, technical control is in the hands of officials and agents of the Ministry of Agriculture and special military staffs.

The Minister of Public Works is associated with the Minister of Labor in enforcing the decree of September 15, 1939, for railroads, mines, and quarries, and related industries.

Coordination of Labor

A national committee for the coordination of labor, made up of representatives of all the Ministries, was created under the Minister of Labor by a decree of September 16. The duties of the committee are to centralize information relative to the needs of the different public or private services, and to apportion the available labor among the respective employers. The committee also is consulted on all

difficulties relative to the execution of measures concerning labor which are submitted to it by the Ministry of Labor. A general secretary and two assistants bring together for the committee all the information furnished by the departmental and regional labor-mobilization services, study the questions to be submitted to the national committee, and prepare decisions and supervise their execution.

National Economic Committee

In order to put at the disposition of the Government a small organization particularly qualified to represent the economic interests of the country, the National Economic Council was suspended for the duration of the war and a permanent economic committee of 21 members was formed, by a decree of October 16. The committee is composed of representatives of employers' associations in industry, commerce, agriculture, banking, and transportation; the principal trade-union organizations; consumers' cooperatives; war veterans; the middle classes; Algeria and the colonies; and in addition includes three persons chosen because of their standing as economists. The committee will carry out investigations, study solutions, and give advice and suggestions, upon all urgent economic questions submitted to it by the Government. The committee has authority under existing laws and regulations, in all cases which were formerly submitted to the National Economic Council.

Social Questions

The National Labor Council and Superior Labor Council were suspended for the duration of the war by a decree of September 26, and a committee for the study of social questions was substituted for these two organizations. The committee, composed of 15 members appointed by the Minister of Labor, will advise on questions of urgent public interest. It is competent to act in place of the two suspended councils on all questions provided for in the laws relating to those councils. It was provided that, as far as possible, nine of the members should be appointed from the members of the two labor councils then in office, and that substitutes might be appointed to take the place of members unable to attend meetings of the committee. The Government departments concerned may send representatives to committee meetings, and the chiefs of bureaus of the General Labor Directorate may attend in an advisory capacity. The committee was appointed by the Minister of Labor on the day the decree was issued, and is on the same tripartite basis as the suspended councils, being composed of Government delegates and experts, and representatives of employers and workers.

Employment Regulations

Decrees regulating the hiring and firing of workers were issued September 1 and 26. The decrees provide that the municipal employment offices, as well as the free employment offices established by the professional syndicates of workers or employers or both, the labor exchanges, trade-unions, mutual-aid societies, and all other legally constituted associations, and the authorized fee-charging agencies, are under the jurisdiction of the labor inspectors and the departmental labor-mobilization services. The Minister of Labor has the power to close private exchanges which do not conform to the regulations. All private employment offices which were operating regularly at the time of publication of the decree were required to notify the divisional labor inspector, within 15 days, of their intention to continue their operations, but no such offices might be opened after that time, nor could the existing offices extend their activities without authorization by the Minister of Labor. These regulations do not apply to employment offices for agricultural laborers.

Orders issued by the Minister of Labor will establish the trades or occupations for which all hiring must be done through the public employment offices, and those for which all hiring and firing must be reported to these offices.

All establishments which are required to hire through the public employment offices are forbidden to post notices in any place, showing their need for workers, and other establishments may post such notices only at the entrance of the establishment. Advertisements for labor in the press or through other means of publicity are forbidden unless authorized by the labor inspector.

A decree of September 26 prohibits all recruitment of personnel in administrative agencies, services, and establishments of the State, except in accord with the advice of the accounting officer of the Ministry concerned. The law also covers employees in the administrative services of Departments and of communes of over 20,000 inhabitants, offices of the housing administration and welfare institutions, subsidized maritime navigation and air-transportation companies, and various concessions. Previous decrees, which were annulled by the present decree, had been issued in December 1938 and in January and March 1939 to provide for limitation of recruitment and the filling of vacancies in these departments and services.

Requisitioning of Labor

Government requisitioning of labor in industrial and commercial establishments and in the State services was introduced by a decree of October 19, 1939, which provides that every requisitioned person, whether the head of an establishment or a wage earner, must be at

the place to which he is assigned within the period fixed, or, if he is included in a collective requisition, must remain at the post which he is occupying. Collective requisitioning of the personnel of an establishment also applies to personnel hired subsequent to the requisition.

Requisitioned persons are not permitted to give up their employment unless the requisition is raised or there is a new requisition assigning them to another place. If an establishment is moved, the requisitioned personnel are required to go with it. Any failure to follow the requirements of the requisitioning order must be reported by the heads of an establishment to the labor inspector, and such infraction will be punishable by the fines and penalties imposed by the law of July 11, 1938, as modified by a decree of September 1, 1939.

In case of physical incapacity or any serious condition, the requisitioned person is required to notify the labor inspector, immediately. The latter will verify the condition and, if necessary, order an examination by an accepted physician under conditions fixed by the Minister of Labor. The labor inspector will make the final decision as to the upholding or the annulment of the requisition.

The heads of establishments have charge of workers of all categories assigned to them by either collective or by individual requisition, except that in the latter case they are taken in charge at the date on which they cease either to be paid by a former employer or to receive assistance from the unemployment fund, or, in the absence of such payments, on the date on which they are put under the requisitioning authority. The period between this date and the beginning of work will be paid for at the minimum rate for ordinary laborers working an 8-hour day in the establishment. If the cost of food and lodging during this period has been advanced by the requisitioning authority, it will be repaid by the employer, who will deduct the amount from the wages of the requisitioned worker.

Provision is made in the law for the reallocation of workers who do not possess the necessary skill, and for adjustments in case too many workers are assigned to an establishment. In these cases decisions must be rendered by the labor inspector within 3 and 5 days, respectively, from receipt of request. If changes in the requisitioning order are necessitated because an employer has asked for more workers than are necessary, the expenses resulting from any changes which are required will be charged, in whole or in part, to the employer, the amount of such charges being paid to the solidarity fund.²

The requisitioned personnel are subject to the rules and regulations of the establishment to which they are assigned, and any infractions

² See *Monthly Labor Review*, December 1939, p. 1368.

of the rules must be reported to the labor inspector. Penalties imposed may not interfere with the utilization of labor nor with production, nor cause any interruption of work. Fines may not exceed 2 days' wages in 2 weeks, half of which will be paid to the solidarity fund. If, for a serious disciplinary reason, a requisitioned worker cannot be retained, he is put in charge of the labor inspector, who will determine where he shall be placed.

When the representatives of the mobilization office or requisitioning authority make a change of requisitioned personnel between establishments, no dismissal wage will be paid; but in case the requisition is lifted, a worker will be entitled to unemployment benefits, although, if it is for a reason of discipline, the allowances will be paid only after expiration of the waiting period. If there is no unemployment fund operating for the locality, an allowance will be paid under an order issued by the Ministers of Labor and Finance. The inspector may authorize the lifting of the requisition only on condition that the person does not leave the locality without authorization.

Requisitioned personnel are entitled to all the benefits provided by labor and social legislation, particularly in regard to wages—subject, however, to the limitations that the circumstances impose.

It is provided that this decree may not conflict with the carrying out of the decree of September 15, 1939, on the utilization of labor, as regards the right of the mobilization office to make changes of personnel between establishments.

Requisitioned personnel in the State services are subject to regulations similar to those for private industry and commerce, as regards their work assignments and penalties for infractions of the rules. They are included under the general social-insurance system, and the State may act as their representative in the collection of dues and benefits to guarantee the full rights of the insured. The decree does not apply to workers employed in a State establishment on August 24, 1939. Such workers, even if they have been requisitioned collectively, remain subject to the regulations of their own establishment.

Personnel in the merchant marine and on fishing boats were requisitioned by a decree of September 9, 1939. The order applied to men, women, and minors, and required all the personnel on boats of over 25 tons to remain at their posts, unless they were subject to military service. Requisitioned personnel cannot be employed in any service other than that to which they belong. The order provided that registered seamen and accountants of the general service could be requisitioned individually for service on this class of vessels by order of the administrator of maritime training, after agreement with the labor inspector, if they had not been out of maritime service for more than 3 years.

WARTIME CHANGES IN LABOR CONDITIONS IN GREAT BRITAIN

TO INSURE more economic use of available manpower and to compensate labor as far as possible for the losses in wages and working time arising from the emergency, the Government of Great Britain has enacted a number of special measures since the declaration of war. Various orders and regulations have been issued under the wartime powers granted the Government and, in addition, employers and employees have voluntarily modified existing collective agreements. The measures referred to, which had come to the attention of the Bureau of Labor Statistics up to December 15, include: The Control of Employment Act¹ forbidding employers to engage or rehire labor without the approval of the Minister of Labor and National Service; the Government orders suspending the maximum limits on working time for road-transport employees engaged in hauling goods for the purposes of the defense services, listing reserved occupations from which labor may not be removed for national defense service, and the requirement that persons called for national defense shall not be dismissed and must be reinstated by their employers; arrangements under voluntary collective agreements, providing different schedules of compensation for loss of working time caused by air-raid precautions; establishment of higher wages,² either in payment for war risks or to cover increases in the cost of living; and lastly an agreement creating a mobile force of dock workers with Government assistance.

Broad powers for dealing with war conditions were granted to the Government under the Emergency Powers (Defense) Act, which received royal assent before the outbreak of war on August 24, 1939. By its terms the King was empowered to make such regulations by Orders-in-council (referred to as "defense regulations") as might be necessary or expedient "for securing the public safety, the defense of the realm, the maintenance of public order and the efficient prosecution of any war," and for "maintaining supplies and services essential to the life of the community."

When the bill was debated in the House of Commons the Home Secretary stated it was not intended to deal with labor questions under the defense regulations. Although war would doubtless necessitate changes in labor administration and legislation, questions like industrial disputes, those involving wages, etc., would be handled by ad hoc legislation. However, some of the important control machinery that is dealt with below was established under this legislation. Two defense regulations typify the powers assumed under the legislation, namely No. 59 providing that factories, mines, and quarries may be exempt from the terms of acts regulating them, and No. 60 establish-

¹ See *Monthly Labor Review*, December 1939, p. 1374.

² *Idem*, p. 1372.

ing the right to make orders for the safety and welfare of factory workers.³ The regulations issued also provide that a person shall not be deemed guilty of an offense because he takes part, or persuades others to take part, in a strike.

Road-Transport Workers

Supplementary orders, Nos. 69 to 78 were adopted dealing specifically with the regulation of traffic on highways and the use of vehicles, and authorizing the Minister of Transport to impose such restrictions in regard to hours of work and hours of rest as he thinks proper. Accordingly, the Minister issued an order affecting drivers engaged in hauling materials or supplies for Government purposes in the defense services. The order suspends section 19 of the Road Traffic Act, 1930, which makes it unlawful for any person to drive or permit an employee to drive for any continuous period of more than 5½ hours, for continuous periods amounting in the aggregate to more than 11 hours in any period of 24, or so that the driver has not at least 10 consecutive hours for rest in any 24 hours calculated from the beginning of any driving period.

Reserved Occupations and Central Register

In order to insure that workers will not be removed from maintenance of necessary production or essential services and to prevent their acceptance for service in which their skill and experience will not be used, the Minister of Labor and National Service has established a schedule of reserved occupations. By this means it will also be practicable to obtain necessary men of particular skills to fill positions in the armed and civil defense forces with a minimum of dislocation in essential production and services.

The schedule contains a list of reserved occupations and specifies the age at, or above, which workers of these skills may not be removed for full-time defense service. Men below the designated age may be accepted in any of these services, subject to the restriction in certain occupations that they may be accepted only in their trade capacity. By an order issued subsequent to the adoption of the schedule, the age limit for reserved occupations, including several engineering trades, metal working, machine tool making, and aircraft construction was reduced to 18.

Women in occupations listed in the schedule may be accepted for full-time service in any of the services of national defense only in their trade capacity, except that for nursing and first-aid work women may be accepted regardless of occupation, and those under 25 years

³ For a summary of the British Factories Act, 1937, see *Monthly Labor Review*, December 1937 (p. 1421). This law deals with safety, sanitation and welfare standards, and hours of labor of women and minors.

old engaged in the retail distributive trades may be accepted in any branch of the service.

None of the restrictions imposed apply to part-time employment in the civil defense services.

The National Service Department of the Ministry of Labor has compiled a central register containing the particulars of scientific, technical, professional, and higher administrative personnel who have volunteered for suitable war work either in the public services or with employers engaged in important war work. Although the object is to obtain the services of the best-trained personnel, there is no compulsion on the part of individuals to register or of employers to report vacancies to, or accept persons from, the central register.

Job Tenure and Defense

The British National Service (Armed Forces) Act, 1939, which provides for securing and controlling the enlistment of men between 18 and 41 years of age for service in the armed forces, was given royal assent on September 3, 1939. It empowered the Minister of Labor and National Service to make certain regulations protecting the position of workers called for duty. Therefore, on September 4, the Prevention of Evasion Regulations, 1939, were issued prohibiting any employer from terminating the employment of persons engaged by him by reason of any duties or liabilities which the employee is or may become liable to perform or discharge by virtue of defense service under the armed forces law, or in order to evade the obligations imposed by the legislation. Employers committing an offense under these regulations are liable to a fine, and may be required to pay a sum not exceeding 12 weeks' wages at the rate of remuneration last paid to the employee.

It is also required by law that a person called from civil employment to the defense services must, upon discharge, be reinstated by his employer in a position and under conditions not less favorable to him than those which would have applied to him had he not been called for duty. The same penalties apply for failure to reinstate employees as for termination of employment. However, the employer is not liable if he proves that the former employee failed to apply for reinstatement 1 month after the termination of his training or service; that he refused reinstatement without reasonable excuse; or that it was impossible to reinstate him under terms equally favorable to those prior to service, and that the most favorable terms of employment that could be afforded were offered.

Provision is likewise made for the adjustment of contracts of service or apprenticeship. When employees subject to such contracts are called for defense service, the Minister of Labor and National Service

may make necessary adjustments by extending the time limits. During military service or training, employers are not liable for wage payments, provision of work, maintenance, instruction, or other services which they have agreed to render. When employment is resumed, the obligations of the contract apply to the period of extension or concluding term of the contract.

Time Lost and Overtime

A number of collective agreements have been modified to afford compensation for employees who lose working time because of air-raid precautions. The Government has not taken action on this question and the measures adopted are the result of employer-employee negotiations. No exhaustive list of the agreements reached is available, but the terms of a few of those for which reports have been received are given.

In the building trades an agreement has been reached whereby employers are obligated to provide for making up such time losses. If hours lost are made up before or after the regularly scheduled time for starting or quitting work, overtime rates are required to be paid. If the hours lost cannot be made up, the employer is responsible for 50 percent of the wage loss up to a maximum of 4 hours. Tardiness because of air-raids or air-raid warnings is to be excused.

Employers and organized labor in the printing trades agreed that if work is suspended during an air raid there will be no deduction in pay. The same agreement provides that when a worker is transferred to another district with his consent and owing to war conditions, he shall receive the wages payable in that district plus any additions for merit to which he is entitled, and some maintenance allowance from the employer calculated on the basis of his domestic circumstances.

Arrangements have been completed in the flour-milling and cattle-food industries to compensate employees in full if they arrive late for work, or if they lose time during the workday, because of air raids or warnings. If they are obliged to work after the close of the normal day, for the same reason, ordinary rates of pay are authorized for both piece and time workers.

Stress is being placed on keeping overtime work at a minimum, both by the Government and private agencies. In an interview at the Home Office it was found that the British Government recommends curtailing unnecessary overtime that is being worked on the civil defenses. As an alternative, temporary employment of additional labor is recommended, where necessary. The Manchester Guardian, in the issue of October 10, states that the last war proved that "overtime labor is physiologically and economically extravagant," and the immediate need is described as "a clear statement of the extent of the

relaxations of the factory regulations that have been permitted * * *, of the number of workers affected, and of the policy the Home Office intends to pursue."

Mobile Dock Labor

A Government-assisted scheme has been concluded for the purpose of establishing a mobile force of dock workers who may be transferred on a voluntary basis, in order to supplement the labor available in any port, when the exigencies of war result in traffic heavier than can be handled by the normal complement of men. The Minister of Labor and National Service participated in drawing up the terms, to which organized employers and employees have agreed.

Arrangements for transference will normally be made by local port joint labor committees in consultation with the Ministry of Labor and National Defense, with the machinery of the employment exchanges at their disposal. Union offices will maintain registers of men who are willing to volunteer for temporary transfer. Men will not be transferred to points beyond daily traveling distance from their homes unless the work will require at least 6 days.

Government assistance is provided to the extent of free traveling expenses, plus an allowance of 6s. 6d. for each day of travel and a guaranteed minimum wage of 10s. a day (i. e., the difference between this sum and the amount of earnings to be paid by the Government) for a minimum of 6 days. The same guaranty is made for succeeding days until the dock worker is returned to his home, excluding Sunday unless the man is required to be in attendance.

Employers agree to pay each man transferred a subsistence allowance of 5s. a day or the equivalent while he is at the port to which he has been transferred.

Men traveling to and from ports daily are entitled to free traveling facilities to be furnished by the Government.

Number of Persons Evacuated From British Cities

According to recent estimates, approximately 1,381,000 persons in the priority classes were evacuated from congested areas at the outbreak of war in Great Britain, as compared with an estimate of 3,000,000 made at the time evacuation was in progress.⁴

⁴ See Monthly Labor Review, November 1939, p. 1090.

The revised figures are as follows:

	<i>Number evacuated</i>
Children.....	750,000
Mothers and children.....	542,000
Expectant mothers.....	12,000
Others.....	77,000
Total.....	1,381,000

SOURCES.—Great Britain: Parliament, House of Commons, Parliamentary Debates, August 24 and November 9, 1939; Ministry of Labor Gazette, September and October 1939. Local Government Chronicle, London, Chas. Knight & Co., Ltd., September 2 and November 11, 1939. International Labor Office: International Labor Review, November 1939, and Industrial and Labor Information, September 18, 25, and October 9, 1939. The Economist (London), September 9 and October 28, 1939. Labor Party, Labor—The Workers' Magazine, October 1939. Trades Union Congress, Industrial News, October 10, 1939. Manchester Guardian, October 10, 1939.



RISE IN SCHOOL-LEAVING AGE POSTPONED IN GREAT BRITAIN ¹

THE raising of the school-leaving age in Great Britain from 14 to 15 years, unless beneficial employment could be found for young people of 14, was scheduled for September 1, 1939. Owing to war conditions, this measure was postponed by legislation—the Education (Emergency) Act, 1939, and the Education (Emergency) (Scotland) Act, 1939—adopted in October. The provision for advancing the age was originally made in the Education Act, 1936.²



INCREASE IN WORKING HOURS AND FAMILY ALLOWANCES IN ITALY ³

AS an emergency measure, restrictions on maximum working hours under collective agreements were suspended, family allowances to the wife and dependent parents of workers were inaugurated, and salaried and wage-earning employees in Italian industry were exempted from contribution to family allowances, effective from December 1, 1939, by an agreement signed on November 8, 1939, by the Fascist Confederations of Industrialists and of Industrial Workers. The purpose of the changes was stated to be increased industrial production for export and an increase in the real wages of the workers. On November 25, 1939, an agreement signed by the two Fascist confederations of com-

¹ Great Britain. House of Commons. Parliamentary Debates, vol. 352, No. 182, October 12, 1939, p. 601, The Economist, London, October 14, 1939, p. 43.

² See Monthly Labor Review, October 1939, p. 803.

³ Data are from *Il Lavoro Fascista* (Rome), November 15, and December 1, 1939; and report from William Phillips, American Ambassador at Rome.

merce made similar provisions relative to family allowances for salaried and wage-earning employees in commerce, and increased dismissal and maternity benefits for them, effective January 1, 1940.

For persons employed in industry, the restrictions imposed on maximum working hours by collective labor agreements are suspended for the duration of the new agreement. For work between 40 and 48 hours per week, 10 percent over normal wages is to be paid; for time beyond 48 hours, normal wages plus 15 percent are to be paid in all cases in which the agreement in force specifies a higher rate. It is recommended that the Saturday half holiday be suspended, for all persons not subject to premilitary instruction, when such holidays conflict with the longer hours. The confederations recommend also that the Minister of Corporations permit exceptions to the prohibition of night work.

In addition to the family allowances already being paid, the following additional weekly allowances will be paid for the worker's wife and for each dependent parent, provided that the father is over 60 and the mother over 55 years and unemployed or that they are permanently disabled for work:

	Wage earners (Lire)	Salaried employees (Lire)
Wife.....	7. 20	10. 20
Each parent.....	4. 20	6. 60

The 1-percent levy on the worker's gross pay, which constitutes his contribution toward family allowances, will hereafter be paid by the employer, together with the 1 percent of pay roll already paid by him.

For salaried and wage-earning employees in commerce the agreement of November 25 provides that family allowances are to be paid for wives and dependent parents, and that the worker's 1-percent contribution shall hereafter be paid by the employer. The suspension of the Saturday half holiday is recommended for those enterprises which now grant it. Provision is made that overtime be paid for at a maximum rate of 15 percent extra in cases where contracts in force stipulate a higher rate. Dismissal indemnity is increased from two-thirds to five-sixths of a month's pay, and maternity benefit from two-thirds to full monthly pay.

International Labor Relations

CONFERENCE OF AMERICAN STATES AT HAVANA, 1939

THE Second Labor Conference of American States ¹ held at Havana, Cuba, from November 21 to December 2, 1939, dealt with social and labor questions from the standpoint of the particular interests of the countries in this hemisphere. The items specifically placed on the agenda of the conference were the migration problem, social insurance, and regulation of the work of women and children, but the discussions at the several meetings covered practically the whole field of labor conditions and labor relations. The conference was attended by 134 delegates and advisers, from 19 States.

Mr. John G. Winant, Director of the International Labor Office, in the report submitted to the conference, stressed the fact that war sharpens social issues, in neutral as well as in belligerent countries, and stated that the International Labor Organization is determined to push forward with its program. The report presented a summary of the economic position of the Americas. It was noted that the greater part of existing labor legislation applies only to urban industrial workers, whereas the majority of New World employees are engaged in agriculture. It was strongly urged, therefore, that farmers and other rural workers should be included in present labor codes, and especially in social-insurance systems. Other subjects considered in the report were nutrition, housing, the employment of women and children, labor inspection, holidays, and the conditions of indigenous workers.

As the aim of regional conferences such as the one at Havana is to discuss problems peculiar to a single section of the world, no conventions are adopted as at the International Labor Conference. Resolutions are adopted, however, which may ultimately be presented to the International Labor Conference in the form of conventions.

The conference adopted, unanimously, the so-called "Declaration of Havana" which expressed the determination of the Americas to hit at the roots of war. The declaration proclaimed the complete

¹ International Labor Office, Second Labor Conference of the American States which are Members of the International Labor Organization, Havana, November 21 to December 2, 1939, Provisional Record, first to fourteenth sitting, and appendixes including resolutions and committee reports (Havana), November and December 1939; press releases HV 39, VII, X, XII, XIII, (Washington Branch, 734 Jackson Place, N.W.), November and December, 1939.

support of the conference for the work of the International Labor Organization, thus demonstrating the New World's social solidarity. It was commonly agreed that the document take its place with the "Declaration of Lima" and the "Declaration of Panama" which, respectively, have demonstrated the Americas' political and judicial solidarity.

The tripartite group assigned to study the migration problem had for its advisers not only the International Labor Office experts, but also the secretary of President Roosevelt's Advisory Committee on Political Refugees. This committee developed a plan for national and international machinery which will facilitate the transfer from Europe of persons seeking homes in this hemisphere. The special problem of political refugees was left largely for other organizations, the committee concentrating on how to guarantee that the ordinary Old World emigrant may be certain, before starting, that he is going to a place in the Americas where he will be wanted and where his abilities can be efficiently utilized.

Three recommendations were made by the social-insurance committee which it is anticipated will receive particular attention in Geneva in planning agendas for future International Labor Conferences. The first two resolutions recommended that indemnities be authorized for all occupational diseases instead of for only a limited schedule, and that private stock insurance companies be eliminated from workmen's compensation systems. The third resolution embodied an agreement that compulsory unemployment insurance must ultimately replace existing nongovernmental systems.

The committee on the work of women and children agreed with the recommendations of the ILO experts whose studies were published in advance of the conference, and in addition went on record against home work and juvenile employment. Attacking a problem peculiar to Latin America, the committee also urged the training of apprentices to succeed foreign technicians in industry.

A general resolution of particular interest to Latin America which was supported unanimously by government, employer, and worker delegates, recommended the abolition of "latifundia" (vast, monopolistic landholdings). Other resolutions brought before the conference included one which put the conference on record in favor of the free association of workers, both in unions and in confederations of unions; one on the withholding of credits between governments unless certain minimum working standards are enforced; and one which urged immigration authorities to give preference to political refugees. These last two resolutions were referred to the International Labor Office for study.

Complete delegations (i. e., two Government representatives and one representative each of employers and workers) were sent by

Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Cuba, and Mexico, and the United States delegation had two labor members, representing the American Federation of Labor and the Committee on Industrial Organization.² Canada sent only one Government representative. The remaining member States sent one, or in some cases two, Government representatives, but no representatives of employers and workers, while observers appointed by States which are not members of the International Labor Organization were present from Costa Rica, Guatemala, and Nicaragua, and one observer (Assistant Secretary of the Ministry of Labor) was sent by Great Britain. The Governing Body of the International Labor Organization sent five representatives, two each representing the Government and employers' groups, and one representing the workers.

² Although the two labor representatives were seated by the conference, they were entitled to only the one vote accorded to the worker delegation of each country under the ILO rules.

Employment and Labor Conditions

MIGRATORY COTTON PICKERS IN ARIZONA

CRITICAL conditions of low earnings, scanty employment, and difficulties in obtaining public relief are declared to be always potential, under the present farming system, in the irrigated Southwest where migratory labor is very largely utilized. A recent study of migratory cotton pickers in Arizona¹ further states that the conditions in the cotton-growing sections of southern Arizona are typical of those in other parts of the Southwest. The study gives the background of Arizona's migratory labor crisis and traces for the year 1937 the pursuits and earnings of 518 migrant groups working in Arizona in January and February 1938. The sample included migrant labor in three important cotton sections (Maricopa, Pinal, and Pima Counties).

Incomes of Cotton Pickers

According to the report, labor-recruiting advertisements by the cotton growers of Arizona in 1937 implied that a good picker could pick from 300 to 400 pounds of cotton per day and consequently earn from \$14 to \$19 per week. The reported earnings, however, of 518 families and unattached persons showed that only 1 cotton picker in 33 averaged as much as \$16 per week in Arizona. The average income per week of a picker working alone was \$7.95; and 1 picker in 4 earned under \$6. These earnings included perquisites as well as cash. Income per picker declined sharply in families having more than 1 picker.

The average income per week for families on cotton-picking jobs in Arizona was \$10.14, which was considerably under the average reported for such work in California and Texas. This explains why cotton pickers prefer to work in the last-mentioned States and also accounts to some extent for the Arizona growers' intensive labor-recruiting campaign. Employment on cotton provided lower earnings per week than other migratory work.

The average cash income of the 518 families and unattached persons from all paid employment in 1937 was \$393. The earnings of more than one-third of these migrants were under \$300 in cash in the year under review, and only 1 in 6 earned \$700 or over in cash.

¹ U. S. Works Progress Administration, Division of Research, *Migratory Cotton Pickers in Arizona*, by Malcolm Brown and Orin Cassmore. Washington, 1939.

When job perquisites were added, over one-fourth of the migrants reported incomes under \$300. Over a half of those whose total earned income for 1937 was under \$300 were family groups and over a fourth were family groups including more than 4 persons. "It is obvious," from these findings, "that the great majority of cotton pickers finished the year either actually in need of relief or in immediate danger of becoming so."

Since the migrant cotton pickers were employed only a part of the year in Arizona, the wage scale for cotton pickers in that State is not wholly responsible for these low incomes.

The migrants who began their wanderings for the first time in 1937—who constituted the great majority of those covered by the study—spent most of that year in nonmigratory occupations at home.

The migrants who left their homes before 1937 and who spent the whole year in migratory pursuits, had an average total weekly income of \$11.03 while employed. The total average annual income of this group was \$539, while that of the group which worked at home for a part of the year was \$424. The earnings reported by migrants who were on the road all during 1937 represent practically the maximum possible at present wage scales for migratory jobs, since this group reported almost full employment for the year.

Living Conditions in Arizona

Although a few cotton camps are well equipped, most of them are crowded and unsanitary and the poorest ones are reported as "utterably wretched." According to the State board of health, operations "under such conditions should be prohibited by law in the interest of public health and common humanity."

Although large-scale cotton production cannot be pursued in the Southwest without migratory workers, Arizona residents treat migratory cotton pickers as pariahs. There is widespread resentment against the mixing of migrant and resident children in school; and the adult pickers are generally considered to be undesirable. Arizona residents dislike the cotton workers because of social and personal characteristics which are a result of their poverty and for which Arizona itself is at least partly responsible.

Health hazards in the cotton camps are frequently serious, particularly since medical care is difficult to obtain. Welfare visitors report that malnutrition is widespread among the children and that there is evidence of high infant mortality.

States of Origin of Migrants

Eighty-five percent of the migrants who left home for the first time in 1937 came from Arkansas, Missouri, Oklahoma, and Texas—the four principal States in which the cotton growers of Arizona have conducted their recruiting campaigns for the past 10 years. Oklahoma alone accounted for 54 percent of the migrants and Texas for 17 percent.

Agricultural Situation in its Relation to Labor

In recent years Arizona cotton growers have become more dependent upon migrant workers, as a result of the rapid extension of cotton acreage and the increase of industrialized farming under the cash-lease plan. Other important irrigated crops in the State have not kept pace with the expansion in cotton production. Instead of diversifying the crop the tendency has been to plant more and more cotton. The need for seasonal labor has consequently become greater and the opportunities for workers in the off-season in other crops have declined.

Operators leasing land under the cash-lease system have little choice concerning the crop to be planted. The uncertainty of the market tends to discourage both lettuce and citrus cultivation. The cash yields on alfalfa and grain crops are low. Cotton crops, on the other hand, bring in cash the first year of cultivation, are readily financed at the opening of the season, have a comparatively stable market, and offer the possibility of substantial profits per acre.

Harvesting cost plays an extremely important part in determining the total cost of cotton production in the irrigated areas. The margin on which the irrigated-cotton grower operates is made more precarious by the fact that a given change in the rate of pay for picking produces three times that change in the cost of lint, since the picking wage is based upon the gross weight of seed cotton, which nets only one-third lint after ginning. Thus, a difference of 10 cents a 100 pounds in picking means a difference of 30 cents a 100 pounds in the cost of lint.

In 1935 less than 5 percent of all the cotton ginned in the United States was produced in the irrigated sections of the Southwest. Cotton prices are consequently fixed largely by the supply produced in the area where the share-crop system keeps wage costs at a minimum. Since the irrigated regions are not economically advantageous for cotton growing, low wages in the Southeast obviously affect wages in Arizona and other States of the Southwest.

The Needs of Migrants

The conditions of migratory labor are intimately bound up with the general poverty in the Western Cotton Belt from which the great majority of these migrants come and from the usual Southwestern farm economy with its need for vast numbers of cheap, mobile, seasonal workers. A great deal of the misery disclosed in this survey and in other parts of the Southwest results from the competition for jobs in a labor market overflowing with workers.

As long as the Southwestern farm economy depends upon seasonal labor in excess of the supply of resident workers, migratory labor cannot be eliminated. The investigators hold, however, that the conditions under which these migrants work could and should be improved. "Higher wages, a stricter observance of sanitary condi-

tions in private camps, and extension of Farm Security Administration camp facilities are socially desirable, not only in the interest of the migrants themselves but also in the interest of the regions in which they move about."

It is further recommended that labor-recruiting activities be controlled, that better guidance may be made available to migrant workers through the United States Employment Service; and that a program of public relief be instituted to aid migrants temporarily in need during the inevitable slack seasons.



LABOR CONDITIONS IN COASTWISE AND INTERCOASTAL SHIPPING ¹

COASTWISE and intercoastal shipping trade accounts for only a small volume of employment as compared with some of the large manufacturing industries, but it affects employment in many collateral activities which depend on domestic shipping, according to a recent report of the United States Maritime Commission. This form of traffic is an integral part of the air, road, and water transportation system of the United States and its importance cannot be measured solely in statistical terms. Moreover, the merchant marine is closely connected with national defense, which is of special significance in the present international situation.

Assuming that the vessels in this trade have an average, economically effective age of 25 years, about 99 percent (2,291,673 deadweight tons) of freight vessels and 39 percent (114,538 gross tons) of combination freight and passenger vessels must be replaced within the next 6 years.

In this report the Maritime Commission states that the position of labor directly engaged in maritime employment has improved in the past 2 years; peaceful settlement of disputes or grievances has advanced; and labor has obtained many of its objectives, notwithstanding that it is still seeking additional changes. The Maritime Commission also states that shipowners, in general, are agreed that labor conditions in the industry are more stable.

According to the Commission, wage rates of able seamen, which have been used as a standard of measurement, increased approximately 45 percent between 1933 and 1938. Scales were increased to compensate for extraordinary conditions or special types of work. Overtime rates of pay also increased materially. Of 19 companies that reported on wage increases from 1934 to 1937 in connection with the report under review, all showed that straight-time and overtime wages had increased. The range in increases was from 11 to 156

¹ Data are from U. S. Maritime Commission, *Economic Survey of Coastwise and Intercoastal Shipping*, Washington, 1939.

percent and the unweighted rise for all companies amounted to about 40 percent. Longshoremen employed by 28 steamship companies had their wages (regular and overtime) increased from 23 to 194 percent in the same period, and the average unweighted increase was 62 percent.

The report discusses the evil of intermittent employment for longshoremen and unlicensed seamen, but no statistics are available to show the extent to which this condition results in reduction of annual income for these classes of workers.

Crews' quarters on vessels in the coastwise and intercoastal trade leave much to be desired, according to the Commission, which also states that many shipowners are undertaking improvements to remedy this situation.

The conclusion reached on the basis of the findings in this survey is that "increased revenues, lower costs of operation, materially lowered construction costs, better labor relations, and improved general economic conditions are necessary if the major part of the companies in the coastwise and intercoastal trades are to make needed replacements from their resources." If vessels are to be constructed for use as naval auxiliaries, the Federal Government will have to give some kind of assistance.

Causes that have contributed to existing difficulties in the trade are listed as (1) increased operating expense; (2) inequitable competition; (3) insufficient net revenue to meet capital charges, depreciation, and provide reserves for replacements; and (4) unfavorable economic conditions. Increased wage rates for regular and overtime work are cited as one of the primary causes of the material increase in operating expenses.

The Commission recommends adoption of a program under which (1) American-owned old (17 years) or obsolete tonnage would be accepted by the Commission at its fair value, as a credit against new construction; and (2) the "turn-in" tonnage would be withdrawn from future commercial use, except in the event of a national emergency. In the opinion of the Commission, this would facilitate the rebuilding of the merchant marine in accordance with the requirements of commerce and national defense.



ECONOMIC STATUS OF LARGE URBAN FAMILIES

THE obviously desperate economic situation of heads of families with low wages and large numbers of young dependents accentuates the interest of the statistics in the following table, which presents family income as related to the actual number of children under 16 years of age per family. The fact that the published report of the 1930 Census on family composition includes no analysis for children be-

tween the ages of 10 and 21, also gives this table importance in connection with the problem of variations in family responsibilities with reference to the adequacy of family income. The findings are the result of a preliminary study, made by the United States Social Security Board, of families included in a national sample survey.¹ This canvass was conducted by the United States Public Health Service in the winter of 1935-36.²

TABLE 1.—Percentage Distribution of Urban Families With and Without Children Under Age 16, by Economic Status

Children under 16 years of age per family	Total number of families ¹	Economic status of family							
		All families	Relief families	Nonrelief families with incomes of—					
				Under \$1,000	\$1,000-\$1,499	\$1,500-\$1,999	\$2,000-\$2,999	\$3,000-\$4,999	\$5,000 and over
All families	886, 915	100.0	16.4	27.7	21.9	15.8	11.3	4.6	2.3
Without children	560, 201	100.0	13.3	30.5	21.2	15.6	11.6	5.0	2.8
With children ²	326, 714	100.0	21.6	23.0	23.2	16.2	10.7	3.8	1.5
1 child	158, 218	100.0	16.8	24.4	23.9	17.2	11.8	4.3	1.6
2 children	92, 724	100.0	20.1	22.0	23.9	17.1	11.2	4.0	1.7
3 children	41, 645	100.0	27.9	21.8	22.5	14.7	8.8	2.9	1.4
4 children	18, 582	100.0	35.9	21.3	20.7	12.1	7.0	2.2	.8
5 children	8, 669	100.0	43.3	20.9	18.6	9.6	5.6	1.5	.5
6 children	4, 115	100.0	49.2	18.9	17.1	8.6	4.7	.9	.6
7 children	1, 716	100.0	54.5	16.5	14.2	8.7	4.5	1.1	.5
8 children	667	100.0	56.7	16.9	13.0	8.4	4.2	.7	.1
9 children	298	100.0	58.4	14.1	12.4	10.4	4.1	.3	.3

¹ Excludes families of unknown income status.

² Excludes families with unknown number of children.

The high proportion of large families on relief shown in table 1, would seem to indicate that their attempts to maintain themselves on wages from private employment or savings therefrom often result in tragic failure. For example, 36 percent of the families with four children under 16 years of age were on relief, as were also almost one-half of the families with six children and 58.4 percent of the families with nine children. Furthermore, the proportion of large families (with from four to nine children under 16) in the higher-income groups was considerably smaller than the proportion of small families in such groups. Only 15.1 percent of the families with nine children under 16 had incomes of \$1,500 or more per annum. The corresponding percentages of families with six, seven, or eight children under that age

¹ U. S. Social Security Board. Social Security Bulletin, Washington, May 1939, pp. 25-34: The Economic Status of Urban Families and Children, by I. S. Falk and Barkev S. Sanders.

² The article from which these data are taken states that, for the purposes of the study of family composition undertaken by the Social Security Board, it was necessary to adopt a definition of family different from that used by the National Health Survey, in order to identify relationships pertinent to problems and policies in social insurance. As defined in the present study, a "bio-legal" family includes: (a) One or both spouses and their unmarried children, if any, including adopted or foster children, living together as a family unit; or (b) unmarried sisters and/or brothers, including adopted or foster brothers and sisters, living together as a family unit; or (c) persons living in extra-familial groups, as here defined, or by themselves, who are considered as separate one-person families. Except when otherwise specified, "family" is used subsequently in this article within the meaning of this definition.

which had \$1,500 or more to live on ranged from 13.4 to 14.8, whereas the proportions of families with one or two children, having incomes of \$1,500 or over, were, respectively, 34.9 and 34 percent.

Although very heavy proportions of the large families included in table 1 were on relief, and very slight proportions were in the higher-income groups, yet, on the other hand, the large families constituted only a small proportion of the 886,915 families covered. For example, only 4 percent of these families had four or more children under 16 years of age, and only about 2 percent had five or more children, while those with seven, eight, or nine children under that age constituted, respectively, less than one-half of 1 percent, as reported in table 2.

TABLE 2.—*Number and Percent of Urban Families With and Without Children Under 16 years of age*

Number of children per family	Families	
	Number	Percent
All families ¹	886,915	100.0
Families with no children.....	560,201	63.1
Families with children ²	326,714	36.9
1 child.....	158,218	17.8
2 children.....	92,724	10.5
3 children.....	41,645	4.7
4 children.....	18,582	2.1
5 children.....	8,669	1.0
6 children.....	4,115	(³)
7 children.....	1,716	(³)
8 children.....	667	(³)
9 children.....	298	(³)

¹ Excludes families of unknown income status.

² Excludes families with unknown number of children.

³ Less than a half of 1 percent.



REEMPLOYMENT MEASURES IN BELGIUM

FOR a number of years the Belgian Government has undertaken special measures for the reabsorption of the unemployed. Decree laws passed between 1934 and 1939 gave the Crown certain powers for the purpose of securing economic and financial relief and reduction in public expenses. This legislation has recently been supplemented by two decrees (October 28 and 30, 1939),¹ completing the measures for putting the unemployed back to work.

The report accompanying the decrees stated that by virtue of the former legislation, the Provinces, communes, and public-assistance committees which engage unemployed persons on work not normally

¹ Bulletin du Comité Central Industriel de Belgique, Brussels, November 8, 1939.

undertaken by private enterprises, had received a subsidy from the National Employment and Unemployment Office of from 11.50 francs to 15 francs per day for each person given employment, on the condition that the pay of such persons was at least equal to pay on regional work of the same nature. Although this had had some favorable effect, the results were not sufficient under present conditions. A decree of September 30, 1939, provided that the Provinces and communes could engage unemployed persons on works for national defense or the passive defense of the population, without such persons' losing their right to unemployment allowances. The purpose of the October decrees was to extend these provisions to the State administrations, to public establishments, and to public utilities; to make them applicable to all public works capable of being regularly carried on; and to require all unemployed persons to accept such employment or lose their right to unemployment benefits and allowances. The law also provided that unemployed persons engaged on such works should receive an additional allowance of 5 francs a day from the employing administration or establishment, and that they should be paid for only 5 hours per day unless circumstances required that workers engaged on national or passive defense should work longer hours.

The supplementary allowance must be included in the declaration of resources of the unemployed person and of his household, but will not be included in calculating his state of need. Such persons are freed from the obligations imposed by the laws on social insurance, family allowances, and vacations with pay, but not as regards insurance against old age and premature death. The administrations and establishments giving work to unemployed persons are subject to the provisions of the workmen's compensation law, and in assessing damages for an industrial accident such persons will be considered to have received the minimum daily wage paid for similar work.

Recognized mutual associations, accepted unemployment funds, family allowance funds, and other private organizations of a social-service nature may be authorized by the National Employment and Unemployment Office to engage insured unemployed persons, to replace, temporarily, members of their personnel who are mobilized. Such persons are entitled to receive the additional 5 francs for each complete day of work without losing their rights to unemployment benefits and allowances.

The second decree created the administrative machinery for carrying out the law.

POSTPONEMENT OF REORGANIZATION IN BRITISH COTTON INDUSTRY ¹

UNDER special legislation which received royal assent on October 30, 1939, the effective date of the main provisions of the Cotton Industry (Reorganization) Act, 1939, may be postponed.² An amendment to section 41 of the earlier law authorizes the Board of Trade to appoint, by order, the date on which that law shall come into operation. The Board is empowered to appoint different effective dates for the various provisions. In this way it will be possible to insure continuance of essential regulatory work in Great Britain, such as that of the Spindles Board, while other measures are deferred.

¹ Great Britain. House of Commons. Parliamentary Debates, vol. 352, No. 189, pp. 1779-1780, 1808.

² See Monthly Labor Review, November 1939, p. 1086, for a summary of this law.

7

Unemployed Youth

YOUTH COMMISSION'S WORK PROGRAM

IN VIEW of the world crisis and the inevitably slow adjustment of business to existing conditions, the American Youth Commission concludes in a recent report that every young person who does not desire to continue in school after 16, and who cannot get a job in private enterprise, should be provided under public auspices with employment in some form of service.¹

The American Youth Commission is a branch of the American Council of Education. Since the death of Newton D. Baker, Owen D. Young has been the acting chairman of the commission, which includes among its members Government officials, educators, writers, editors, and representatives of industry and labor.²

The commission thinks it probable that war purchases will stimulate business but points out that the most sanguine estimates limit the new jobs to 2 or 3 millions for the many millions of unemployed. Furthermore, it is the belief of the commission that the residual unemployment will be found in heavy proportions among young people. This constant pressure of unemployment on them, in spite of a war boom, will tend to increase the danger of this country's drifting into the war.

Disadvantaged Youth

The commission reports that one-third of the jobless workers in the United States are 15 to 24 years of age. The unemployment rate is higher in the 20 to 24 age group than in any of the older age groups and highest for all youth among those in the 15 to 20 age group who have left school and are in quest of work.

¹ American Youth Commission. *A Program of Action for American Youth*. Washington, 1939.

² The members of the commission, besides Mr. Young, are Will W. Alexander, Administrator, Farm Security Administration; Clarence A. Dykstra, president, University of Wisconsin; Dorothy Canfield Fisher, writer; Willard E. Givens, executive secretary, National Education Association; Henry I. Harri-man, former president, Chamber of Commerce of the United States; Rev. George Johnson, director, department of education, National Catholic Welfare Conference; Dr. Mordecai W. Johnson, president, Howard University; Chester H. Rowell, editor, San Francisco Chronicle; William F. Russell, dean, Teachers College, Columbia University; John W. Studebaker, U. S. Commissioner of Education; Henry C. Taylor, director, Farm Foundation; Miriam Van Waters, superintendent, Reformatory for Women, Framingham, Mass.; Matthew Woll, vice president, American Federation of Labor; Robert E. Wood, chairman of board, Sears, Roebuck & Co.; and George F. Zook, president, American Council on Education.

According to the November 1937 census of unemployment, nearly 11,000,000, or one-fifth of the available workers, were either totally unemployed or on emergency work. The accompanying table shows that the years of highest employability at that time were in the 25-55 age group. Above the age of 55 the percentage of unemployed were higher but not so heavy as in the groups under 25.

*Available Workers Totally Unemployed or Engaged in Emergency Work,
November 30, 1937, by Age*

Age group	Estimated percent	Estimated number
All ages.....	20	¹ 10,983,000
15-19 years.....	41	1,934,000
20-24 years.....	24	1,989,000
15-24 years.....	30	3,923,000
25-34 years.....	16	2,225,000
35-44 years.....	16	1,839,000
45-54 years.....	17	1,576,000
55-64 years.....	20	1,020,000
65-74 years.....	19	349,000

¹ Includes 42,000 for whom age was not reported.

The commission calls attention to the fact that the number of persons in the 15-19 age group in our population is at present at its maximum. That number is now approximately 850,000 greater than the number in 1930, and 1,800,000 more than the estimate for 1950 (on the basis of births in past years).

The existing disproportionate unemployment among youth under 20 may be due in part to the unusual number of these young people in the United States. The estimated decline of 1 in 7 in their number by 1950 may lessen to some degree the severity of unemployment among those in that age group.

The tendency to close employment to beginners has for many years been a disturbing feature in this country. During the protracted period of depression many large employers dismissed the young workers first when reducing their personnel and, when it was possible again to add to their forces, engaged them last. These practices were the outcome in part of a praiseworthy attempt to aid those workers who had the heaviest family responsibilities and in part to a sense of obligation to employees with records of long service. The result, however, has been to intensify the long-range trend so disadvantageous to the employment of youth.

In this modern world, the commission continues, young people have more and more difficulty in getting a start even in periods which are somewhat prosperous. Self-employment opportunities on the land are limited because the number of farm boys who reach the age of 18

every year is double the number of farms that become vacant. Work opportunities in family enterprises are fewer as a result of increasing business concentration and the decline in the number of successful small businesses. During the depression years professional associations and trade-unions raised the minimum entrance ages higher and higher and placed more and more drastic restrictions on work opportunities for apprentices and beginners. The large employers who have instituted the policy of taking on and training young people have not been sufficiently numerous to counteract these adverse employment trends. Undoubtedly, a protracted period of increasing prosperity with a continued dearth of workers without experience would result in further facilities for training beginners for the industrial field. However, the Nation has to meet the conditions of today in a crisis which does not allow for slow adjustments.

The trends in population and the general industrial changes, referred to above, aggravated by heavy and prolonged unemployment among the gainful workers in all age groups, have resulted in a generation of young people which includes an extraordinarily large proportion with no training or work experience. A substantial business boom may bring about an acute shortage of skilled and semiskilled workers and yet create no opportunities for the several millions of youth who have learned neither the habits nor skills demanded by modern industry. Although the specific training necessary for many semiskilled occupations can be acquired in a few months, a considerably longer period of experience is requisite, for the formation of fundamental work habits. In the words of the commission, "The situation has obvious dangers from the standpoint of the national defense in time of war, and it may be no less serious as an influence retarding full employment in time of peace."

Remedial Measures

One of the reiterated proposals for solving the youth unemployment problem is to raise the compulsory school-attendance age. It is the belief of the commission that all young persons should be obliged to attend full-time school up to 16 years of age, but that it would not be advisable to make such attendance compulsory above that age to youth who prefer gainful employment. Above 16 years of age many young persons who would be benefited from training on a job would be wasting their time by attending school.

The success of experiments combining part-time schooling with part-time jobs has impressed the commission, and it recommends the rapid extension of this scheme for eliminating the hiatus between full-time schooling and full-time employment. However, opportunities for even part-time work are restricted, and this excellent

device for introducing young persons into industry cannot solve the general jobless-youth problem in a brief period.

The commission stresses the fact that whether a nation is at war or in peace it must provide proper opportunities for making useful citizens of its young people. In past generations the United States acquired enormous land areas in which young persons could settle. "The obligation to provide opportunity for youth has become imperative today because it is not being met by the conditions of private and public employment as they exist."

No good purpose can be served by blaming the young person who has not found a job for himself. The facts of arithmetic cannot be wished away. In the entire country, a few thousand jobs probably are vacant because no competent applicant has appeared. Another few thousand chances probably exist for unusual young people to make their own jobs by starting new enterprises. But there are several million more young men and women who want to work than there are jobs available for them. The totals do not balance. The bright or the lucky get the jobs, but some will have to be left out until their elders, who control the economic conditions of the country, find some way to open the gates.

The fact that the older people own the property and control practically all the jobs lays upon them the major responsibility for making the opportunities match the number of youth they have brought into the world.

The commission states that it does not wish to belittle the fact that it is frankly proposing a program which will expand the Federal budget at a period when the demand for economy and a balance of income and expenditures is acute. However, in the judgment of that body, the actual cost of the measures here advocated will be less than might be expected. The suggested public employment for youth need not be full time nor highly paid. The cost per young worker could be kept within \$400 per annum; on the other hand, the contribution of these young persons would, no doubt, help their families and consequently reduce the need for public aid from other funds. The jobs on which these young people are placed should provide constructive employment experience and their performance should be a real service to the community. Work conforming to these standards would be an addition to the national wealth.

In planning public employment for youth, special attention should be paid to its educational aspects. The superintendents of the work projects should be competent to train young persons not only in specific skills but also in good work habits. The employment should be carried on in a spirit which will make the youthful workers feel that they are valuable to their country. Furthermore, these projects should provide opportunities to try out different types of work so that the young persons may discover their own aptitudes and abilities and

be given some guidance in their preparation for private employment along lines in which it would seem they might be most useful and successful.

Besides the various kinds of conservation work and the construction of needed public buildings, one valuable community service which should be greatly extended, according to the report under review, is the "self-help" production of goods and services needed by both young people and others among the unemployed. Although some persons may regard this production as competition with business, the commission disagrees with this viewpoint and holds that, "in any event, it is far preferable to unemployment or to the levels of taxation which would be necessary to support a decent level of subsistence for those in need if they are not allowed to do anything for themselves."

Women in Industry

COMPARATIVE EARNINGS AND HOURS OF MEN AND WOMEN, MARCH 1939

AVERAGE weekly earnings in many of the important woman-employing industries were higher in March 1939 than in March 1938 for both men and women, but in most cases the increase was greater for women than for men. These higher earnings may be attributed to the fact that longer hours of work, especially in the case of women, were shown in all but a few of the industries. Nevertheless, the workweek averaged less than 40 hours in all industries for women and in most industries for men.

In some of the lowest-paid industries, such as the manufacture of cigars, confectionery, cotton and work clothing, paper boxes, and silk and rayon goods, average hourly earnings were higher in March 1939 than 6 months before. The increases were generally a little larger for women than for men. The fixing of a national minimum wage by the Fair Labor Standards Act, which became operative during this period, probably played an important part in raising the averages in these industries.

These facts were ascertained by the United States Women's Bureau¹ from the pay-roll records for 345,000 women in 22 large woman-employing industries and for nearly 25,000 women in laundries and dry-cleaning plants, which were furnished by employers to the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics. The reporting industries employ, according to the Census of Manufactures, nearly two-thirds of all women in manufacturing. Women constitute over one-half of the employees in 13 of the 22 manufacturing industries reported, and over one-third in a number of others. The 12 States² covered by the reports are leading manufacturing States, employing about three-fourths of all women in manufacturing.

In each of the 24 industries, women's hourly wages in March 1939 were lower than men's. In over half of the industries, the average for women was below the lowest for men, which was 42.5 cents an hour in cotton factories. Men averaged over 52 cents an hour in all other industries, except silk and rayon. Women, however, had an

¹ See U. S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau, *The Woman Worker*, Washington, September 1939.

² California, Connecticut, Illinois, Indiana, Massachusetts, Michigan, Missouri, New Jersey, New York, North Carolina, Ohio, and Pennsylvania.

average as high as 50 cents an hour in only 8 industries. The work-week of women was somewhat shorter than that of men, except in two instances. Men, however, had a workweek of less than 40 hours in most of the industries.

Table 1 shows average hours and earnings of men and women in the large woman-employing industries in the 12 States in March 1939.

TABLE 1.—Average Hours and Average Hourly and Weekly Earnings in Selected Industries in March 1939, by Sex

[From reports by employers. Preliminary figures]

Industry	Women reported		Average week's earnings		Average hours worked ¹		Average hourly earnings ¹	
	Number	Per-cent of all reported employees	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
<i>Manufacturing</i>								
Textile industries.....	107,584	49	\$19.85	\$14.30	37.4	35.5	53.3	40.5
Cotton goods.....	27,075	38	15.92	13.04	37.4	35.6	42.5	36.5
Knit goods.....	37,524	62	26.90	15.54	38.1	36.2	71.7	43.6
Hosiery.....	25,175	57	27.60	16.08	37.8	36.0	73.9	45.4
Underwear.....	12,349	75	21.88	13.92	40.3	36.9	55.9	38.2
Silk and rayon.....	24,426	55	18.89	13.35	38.6	35.8	49.3	37.2
Woolen and worsted.....	18,559	42	21.32	15.24	36.0	33.4	59.2	45.7
Clothing industries.....	97,780	70	34.05	17.07	36.0	33.9	96.4	50.7
Men's clothing.....	53,689	66	29.51	15.50	37.2	34.6	80.6	44.5
Suits and overcoats, etc.....	25,461	53	30.98	18.25	36.8	36.1	85.5	50.5
Cotton; work; shirts and collars.....	28,228	83	22.90	12.74	39.1	33.1	58.6	38.5
Women's clothing.....	44,091	75	40.54	18.64	34.4	33.3	119.0	56.9
Undergarments, etc.....	15,102	87	30.38	15.02	38.9	35.5	77.7	41.2
Coats and suits.....	3,217	34	49.13	29.93	33.3	32.9	149.2	94.7
Dresses, cotton.....	11,317	92	26.10	13.47	41.8	36.2	64.2	35.5
Dresses, other.....	14,455	75	38.20	21.65	32.5	30.3	113.6	71.9
Food industries—confectionery.....	13,973	62	24.92	14.04	41.3	35.3	60.7	39.6
Leather industries—boots and shoes.....	27,482	45	23.48	15.88	38.6	39.2	61.3	40.8
Tobacco industries—cigars.....	9,597	84	19.58	11.86	38.6	32.5	52.4	37.0
Paper and printing:								
Book and job.....	13,274	23	35.23	17.03	38.9	35.6	90.9	48.7
Paper boxes (set-up).....	8,266	60	24.47	14.47	40.6	36.0	59.1	39.9
Electrical industries:								
Electrical machinery and supplies.....	31,357	23	30.24	19.61	37.0	37.2	81.9	53.0
Radios and phonographs.....	10,696	56	25.80	16.28	36.3	35.5	72.5	46.8
Metal industries—hardware.....	8,982	28	26.48	17.44	37.2	33.4	72.3	53.5
Rubber goods:								
Auto tires and tubes.....	5,051	14	35.27	21.87	33.5	30.5	106.0	72.2
Boots and shoes.....	1,828	51	23.05	15.51	39.3	37.1	58.8	41.9
Glass and pottery.....	8,948	23	26.91	15.99	36.3	35.2	74.2	45.4
<i>Nonmanufacturing</i>								
Laundries.....	22,118	66	27.06	14.28	45.4	39.2	59.2	36.0
Dry cleaning.....	2,816	44	25.06	15.46	43.7	37.6	58.1	41.2

¹ Computed from smaller number of employees than total, since man-hours not reported for all.

The trends in employment, earnings, and hours of men and women, in the 24 woman-employing industries, during the year from March 1938 to March 1939, may be seen in table 2, which presents data for identical establishments:

TABLE 2.—Changes in Employment, Earnings, and Hours in Identical Establishments, March 1938 to March 1939, by Sex

[Computed from reports by employers. Preliminary figures]

Industry	Percent of change ¹ from March 1938 to March 1939 in—							
	Number employed		Average week's earnings		Average hours worked ²		Average hourly earnings ³	
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
<i>Manufacturing</i>								
Textile industries.....	+11.9	+12.4	+3.9	+9.2	+9.6	+15.1	-5.0	-5.2
Cotton goods.....	+10.2	+8.8	+10.6	+13.1	+15.5	+20.8	-4.1	-6.0
Knit goods.....	-1.4	+4.7	-1.3	+1.9	+1.8	+9.2	-3.0	-5.9
Hosiery.....	-2.2	+3.3	-1.6	-.4	+1.3	+7.3	-2.8	-6.1
Underwear.....	+1.0	+6.9	-.5	+10.4	+4.9	+16.4	-4.4	-5.6
Silk and rayon.....	+9.6	+9.4	+4.0	+10.9	+4.1	+11.6	-1.9	-1.1
Woolen and worsted.....	+30.8	+39.0	+2.2	+17.5	+11.5	+23.7	-9.1	-6.9
Clothing industries.....	+3.0	+2.4	+10.9	+12.8	+11.7	+13.6	-1.2	+.2
Men's clothing.....	+2.8	+4.9	+15.9	+16.2	+15.7	+19.1	-1.6	-.4
Suits and overcoats, etc.....	+2.2	+7.5	+18.0	+19.5	+17.8	+22.9	-1.1	-1.0
Cotton; work; shirts and collars.....	+5.5	+2.7	+4.1	+11.7	+7.6	+15.5	-3.9	+.5
Women's clothing.....	+3.3	-.6	+6.2	+10.3	+6.2	+8.6	-.9	+.7
Undergarments, etc.....	+6.3	-2.3	+4.2	+12.1	+10.0	+8.4	-7.4	+1.8
Coats and suits.....	+2.2	+.5	+8.7	+11.3	+6.4	+13.6	+2.4	-1.5
Dresses, cotton.....	+10.7	-(³)	-2.1	+3.6	-.9	+4.0	-.6	-1.4
Dresses, other.....	+2.3	+.5	+4.7	+10.8	+5.5	+10.4	-2.7	+1.1
Food industries—confectionery.....	-.5	-1.2	-.1	+3.2	+1.7	+2.4	-.7	.0
Leather industries—boots and shoes.....	+6.2	+9.8	+4.6	+8.3	+7.0	+6.1	-.2	+1.3
Tobacco industries—cigars.....	-5.6	-2.3	+1.5	.0	+.3	-6.1	-.4	+3.9
Paper and printing:								
Book and job.....	-1.5	-2.4	+3.4	+2.1	+1.8	+4.7	+1.3	-1.2
Paper boxes (set-up).....	+11.9	+8.0	+3.9	+7.5	+4.6	+6.2	-1.3	+.8
Electrical industries:								
Electrical machinery and supplies.....	-1.9	+8.2	+18.3	+24.6	+17.7	+28.3	+1.3	-1.9
Radios and phonographs.....	+11.8	+49.8	+12.8	+24.6	+10.7	+30.7	+1.8	-5.6
Metal industries—hardware.....	+19.2	+30.8	+23.8	+35.7	+22.8	+33.5	-.3	-.4
Rubber goods:								
Auto tires and tubes.....	+5.4	+12.3	+43.4	+44.5	+39.3	+41.9	+2.2	+1.3
Boots and shoes.....	+42.8	+66.2	+12.9	+9.5	+10.1	+6.6	+2.8	+2.7
Glass and pottery.....	+10.1	+9.2	+9.5	+15.3	+7.1	+12.7	+2.5	+3.2
<i>Nonmanufacturing</i>								
Laundries.....	-2.6	-2.4	-1.1	+5.3	.0	+2.9	-.8	+2.0
Dry cleaning.....	-.7	-4.1	+1.0	+6.5	-.5	+6.5	+.2	+.5

¹ Based on identical firms.² Computed from smaller number of employees than total, since man-hours not reported for all.³ Less than 0.05 percent.

EMPLOYMENT OF WOMEN AFTER MARRIAGE

THE policy of requiring a woman employee to resign her employment if she marries does not prevail generally among employers, with the exception of financial concerns, though there has been something of a trend in that direction of late. Most companies which have reported a comparatively recent change of policy adopted the practice of requiring resignation on the marriage of a woman employee. However, it is thought that the adoption of rigid policies on this subject seems likely to be arrested by the outbreak of war in Europe, with its possible effect on American industry and business.

The question as to whether married women should be employed assumed importance during the depression. Frequently the wife could obtain employment when the husband could not. In some cases, young people married and the wife kept her job, because only if both had an income from employment could they be married at all; frequently, when companies had a rule against employing married women, in order to spread wages and salaries as widely as possible, the wife kept the marriage secret so as to retain her position.

As the depression slowly receded, the question of how long the married woman should retain her job presented itself. If the husband had obtained a job, or if any increases in salaries had occurred, the combined salaries would furnish a higher standard of living than would be possible if the wife gave up her job for that of homemaking. Also, jobs became uncertain again as business took another downward trend.

*Legal Right of Married Women to Employment*¹

The question of the right of married women to keep their employment became more prominent with the introduction in State legislatures of resolutions and bills having for their purpose the restriction or prohibition of the employment of married women in public service. In Massachusetts such bills were introduced in the 1939 legislature, but before action was taken thereon, the Supreme Judicial Court of Massachusetts held, in a 5-to-2 advisory opinion, that the bills were unconstitutional. In Utah, a bill to bar from employment married persons whose spouses were employed, failed of enactment.

The courts have generally upheld the legal right of a married woman to her job. The National Education Association reported last year that in at least 12 States,² teachers have been legally protected by court decisions against discriminatory dismissal on account of marriage. State and county officials in other States have also upheld this right of the married woman.

Employers' Policies

In New York, the State tax department has adopted a very liberal policy. Marriage has no effect on the tenure of the woman's position, and in case of an expected child an additional 30 days' sick leave is provided, besides accumulated sick and annual leave. Not less than 7 months' leave must be taken, the maximum with pay being 3½ months.³

¹ Data in this section are from U. S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau, *The Woman Worker* (Washington, D. C.), September and November 1939.

² Alabama, California, Florida, Illinois, Indiana, Kentucky, New Jersey, New York, Oregon, Pennsylvania, Tennessee, and West Virginia.

³ U. S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau, *The Woman Worker* (Washington, D. C.), November 1939.

POLICIES OF INDUSTRIAL COMPANIES⁴

Because of the public interest in the employment of married women, the National Industrial Conference Board made a study of the prevailing practices of employers. The inquiry covered manufacturing and mercantile establishments, public utilities, banks, insurance companies, and brokerage houses, and especially those with a considerable proportion of woman employees. Both office and factory employees were covered. Information was received from 484 companies, with an aggregate of 1,150,646 employees.

Many companies which have adopted specific policies have done so quite recently, and in such cases women already employed are frequently exempted from the application of the policy. Large organizations with units in different localities often find it impractical to adopt a fixed rule for universal application, as local circumstances and opinion frequently make it wise to have a flexible rule. The increasing number of agreements with labor organizations containing seniority provisions regulating lay-off and discharge also affects the situation. Generally, no distinction is made in such agreements as to married and single women, and therefore the management cannot terminate a woman's employment solely because she has married.

The number of companies surveyed which reported specific policies as to office and factory employees was as follows:

	Office employees	Factory employees
Number of companies with policy—		
Definite and fixed.....	198	117
Flexible.....	279	244
Number of companies where woman employee is—		
Encouraged to retain job.....	11	11
Permitted to retain job—		
Without restrictions.....	276	251
If husband not employed by company.....	23	16
Forbidden to retain job.....	111	38

Two-fifths (40.9 percent) of the companies reporting had a definite and fixed policy concerning woman office employees who married, as compared with 24.2 percent which had such a policy as regards factory workers. In practice, however, the policy was somewhat flexible as to both classes, ranging from an occasional deviation to treating each case according to the particular circumstances.

Practically 60 percent of the companies reporting had no restriction on woman office employees remaining in employment after marriage, and 54 percent of the companies had no such limitation as regards factory employees. Some companies made an exception if the husband was employed by the same company or in the same department

⁴ Data in this section are from National Industrial Conference Board, Inc., Conference Board Management Record (New York), October 1939.

or unit of the company. In some of these cases the woman's employment terminated automatically on her marriage, and in others either the wife or the husband might resign, at their option. Some companies had a rule that when reduction of the force became necessary, single women were to be preferred for retention in employment over married women with employed husbands.

A definite policy against retaining women in their employ after marriage seemed to be more common as regards office employees than in the case of factory workers. Practically 23 percent of the companies reporting forbade the retention of woman office employees after marriage, as compared with about 8 percent which had such a regulation concerning factory workers. As regards woman office employees, this policy was more customary in some types of business than others. Insurance companies apparently followed this practice quite generally, as 84 percent of the companies reporting had a policy forbidding retention of woman office employees after marriage. Banks (65 percent) and public utilities (63 percent) generally had this policy also. On the other hand, only a small proportion of the manufacturing and mercantile establishments (14 and 11½ percent, respectively) followed this practice.

Companies which reported that a woman employee had to give up her job when she married did not, in all cases, require that she do so immediately. An equal number of companies reported, respectively, that she had to leave at once, and that she must leave within 1 month. Other companies allowed 3 months, and 6 months was not uncommon. Three companies allowed 1 year after marriage before a woman office employee had to resign.

Application for reemployment was permitted by a considerable number of companies if the woman became a widow or her husband became disabled and could not support her. Divorce or unemployment of the husband was considered by a smaller number of companies as a reason for such permission.

Although reemployment might mean reinstatement in regular employment, it might, on the other hand, be restricted to temporary employment. A few companies regarded former married-woman employees as a labor reserve which could be drawn upon for extra workers in rush or peak periods, the employment being only temporary.

Company Policies in Event of Childbirth

Where company policies allowed woman employees to retain their jobs after marriage, the practice in the event of anticipated childbirth varied. In the case of office employees, there was a fairly equal division in practice as to requiring resignation and allowing the employee to ask for a leave of absence. As regards factory workers, the reporting companies favored, 2 to 1, granting a leave of absence.

In such case reemployment was not guaranteed, as a rule, but was dependent upon the need for additional workers at the time of the application.

The number of the companies reporting specified policies as to retention of married-woman employees in case of anticipated childbirth, are set forth in the following statement:

In event of pregnancy, woman employees retained after marriage—	Office employees	Factory employees
Must sever connection with company.....	143	81
May apply for leave of absence.....	135	164
Childbirth benefits granted—		
From mutual-benefit association or group insurance.....	41	43
From special company benefits.....	8	6

Benefits (of any kind) were rarely given in connection with childbirth, unless the employee was covered by group sickness insurance, or belonged to a mutual-benefit association or a hospital association. There were a few exceptions to this general rule, one company paying 6 weeks' wages; another paid a benefit of \$20 to \$40, according to length of service, if the wife or husband belonged to the local association; and still another made a bank deposit in the name of the child. A few companies provided aid in needy cases.

Social Security

PLACEMENT WORK OF PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT SERVICES, NOVEMBER 1939¹

A GENERAL seasonal decline in placements was reported by the public employment offices in November, although the number of jobs with private employers was the highest November total in the history of the public employment office system. At the same time applications for work received during the month showed an increase, and the active file gained for the first time this year.

A total of 289,444 complete placements was made by the public employment offices, of which 248,934 were in jobs with private employers. Although the private jobs were nearly 20 percent lower than in October, they were 40 percent above the level of November last year and 58 percent above the number reported in November 1937. The 40,510 placements in public employment reported for the month, however, were lower than in November of either of the previous years. The drop in private placements from October was general throughout the country, every State but Texas and Arizona showing a decrease.

The seasonal nature of the decline is reflected by a large drop in agricultural placements. Private placement declines were greatest for men, with a drop of 27.3 percent from October. However, the 133,258 placements of men were 35.9 percent higher than in 1938 and 45.8 percent above 2 years ago. The 115,676 private placements of women were only 7.5 percent lower than in October and 45 percent and 74.8 percent above November of 1938 and 1937, respectively.

In addition to these complete placements, employment offices participated in the filling of 59,596 jobs. In these supplemental placements, although they did not carry on all the steps in completing the placement transaction, the offices were of material assistance in bringing worker and employer together.

Widespread increases in the number of applications for work received brought the total for the month to 1,416,606, of which 538,972 represented new applications. Gains from October in the number of new applications were reported for 29 States. Nearly a million of the current applications received were those of men.

¹ Prepared by Research and Statistics Division, Bureau of Employment Security, Social Security Board.

At the close of November, 5,621,697 active job seekers were registered at the public employment offices, 2.9 percent more than in October. This is the first increase during 1939 and follows an almost uninterrupted decline from the level of 8,119,187 reported in August 1938. As in the case of new applications, active-file gains were general, being reported in 31 States. Applications of men numbered 4,175,240 and those of women 1,446,457.

During November a total of 1,592 offices and 2,706 itinerant points were operated by the Nation-wide chain of public employment offices. Staff members made 203,189 visits to employers in efforts to widen job opportunities for registrants.

TABLE 1.—Summary of Placement Operations, United States, November 1939

Activity	Number	Percent of change from—		
		October 1939	November 1938	November 1937
Total applications.....	1,416,606	+6.6	+30.3	+85.5
New applications.....	538,972	-1.1	+7.2	+80.2
Renewals.....	877,634	+11.9	+50.2	+89.0
Total placements.....	280,444	-21.0	+15.4	+29.1
Private.....	248,934	-19.3	+40.0	+58.0
Regular.....	124,516	-18.1	+57.6	+103.5
Temporary.....	124,418	-20.4	+25.9	+29.0
Public.....	40,510	-29.9	-44.5	-39.2
Active file (end of month).....	5,621,697	+2.9	-25.3	+27.2

Activities for veterans reflected similar trends. A total of 10,141 placements were reported, of which 7,861 were in private jobs. This is a drop of 23.9 percent from the number of private placements reported in October. During the month 55,605 applications from veterans were received, and at the month end 235,430 veteran job seekers were actively registered, 5 percent more than in the previous month, but 38.1 percent less than in November 1938.

TABLE 2.—Summary of Placement Activities for Veterans, November 1939

Activity	Number	Percent of change from—		
		October 1939	November 1938	November 1937
Total applications.....	55,605	+17.7	+31.8	+32.5
New applications.....	12,939	+3.2	-6.9	+16.0
Renewals.....	42,666	+23.0	+50.8	+38.5
Total placements.....	10,141	-25.5	-12.6	-18.7
Private.....	7,861	-23.9	+24.7	+9.5
Regular.....	2,836	-24.1	+37.7	+33.6
Temporary.....	5,025	-23.8	+18.4	-0.6
Public.....	2,280	-30.8	-57.0	-56.9
Active file (end of month).....	235,430	+5.0	-38.1	-3.6

TABLE 3.—Activities of Public Employment Services in the United States, November 1939

Division and State	TOTAL										
	Placements ¹					Supplemen- tal place- ments	Field visits	Applications		Active file, Nov. 30, 1939	Per- sonal visits
	Total	Private Number	Per- centage change from October	Regu- lar (over 1 month)	Pub- lic			Total	New		
United States.....	289,444	248,934	-19	124,516	40,510	59,596	203,189	1,416,606	538,972	5,621,697	9,545,594
New England.....	14,591	11,771	-17	7,864	2,820	627	9,342	83,826	32,486	364,661	637,542
Maine.....	1,455	1,158	-14	841	297	36	844	8,758	2,463	33,020	56,669
N. Hampshire.....	2,134	1,550	-32	1,150	584	218	1,164	7,513	2,482	25,477	48,825
Vermont.....	911	698	-9	346	213	15	393	2,836	954	15,219	12,826
Massachusetts.....	3,929	3,324	-1	2,564	605	144	4,240	40,585	18,535	167,112	325,432
Rhode Island.....	1,091	853	-17	562	238	15	978	6,189	3,002	42,316	68,919
Connecticut.....	5,071	4,188	-23	2,401	883	199	1,723	17,945	5,050	81,517	124,871
Mid. Atlantic.....	47,353	41,772	-8	23,680	5,581	2,109	50,898	307,546	116,548	1,238,179	2,118,656
New York.....	23,519	20,805	-5	9,991	2,714	890	21,315	162,155	69,812	541,098	1,189,197
New Jersey.....	10,466	10,139	-14	6,189	327	334	15,150	47,308	19,622	277,508	284,902
Pennsylvania.....	13,368	10,828	-10	7,500	2,540	885	14,433	98,083	27,114	419,573	644,557
E. N. Central.....	52,335	49,198	-12	27,280	3,137	2,598	41,540	264,067	103,092	1,054,550	2,137,964
Ohio.....	14,231	13,544	-8	7,108	687	377	13,266	67,284	23,140	259,174	630,549
Indiana.....	7,905	7,685	-14	4,528	220	1,406	2,761	48,169	19,478	195,475	251,347
Illinois.....	13,539	13,399	(²)	6,758	140	262	8,736	54,552	32,151	206,548	587,535
Michigan.....	10,441	9,459	-19	5,913	982	243	13,885	65,321	20,067	226,244	520,015
Wisconsin.....	6,219	5,111	-27	2,973	1,108	310	2,892	28,741	8,256	167,109	148,518
W. N. Central.....	28,738	23,275	-32	9,920	5,463	953	25,647	120,032	40,753	497,349	684,040
Minnesota.....	6,033	5,089	-20	2,535	944	499	7,969	24,538	6,542	130,260	194,994
Iowa.....	6,638	5,091	-18	1,909	1,547	155	4,108	17,996	5,234	86,295	125,268
Missouri.....	7,232	6,402	-50	2,876	830	27	4,473	43,352	18,512	141,631	196,404
North Dakota.....	2,277	2,001	-31	729	276	36	825	5,065	1,554	23,670	28,793
South Dakota.....	1,169	772	-8	265	397	44	637	5,430	1,339	34,081	17,130
Nebraska.....	2,433	1,342	-41	600	1,091	44	2,025	8,887	2,577	43,602	50,911
Kansas.....	2,956	2,578	-9	1,006	378	148	5,610	14,764	4,995	37,810	70,540
S. Atlantic.....	38,803	30,434	-23	18,067	8,369	1,854	16,921	174,494	67,452	663,404	952,650
Delaware.....	1,812	1,641	-26	975	171	204	217	3,381	869	12,106	20,208
Maryland.....	3,831	3,189	-5	1,841	642	61	1,607	19,709	6,399	61,391	67,693
Dist. of Col.....	3,355	2,920	-15	1,277	435	66	67	10,918	4,249	35,809	65,502
Virginia.....	4,437	3,477	-29	2,311	900	236	2,547	20,618	7,859	46,871	114,846
West Virginia.....	3,979	3,284	(³)	1,813	695	708	1,327	25,770	3,785	66,701	93,979
N. Carolina.....	7,268	5,090	-36	2,791	2,178	361	1,806	28,182	11,498	75,057	185,195
S. Carolina.....	2,614	1,565	-32	949	1,049	51	2,163	13,374	5,278	106,658	117,030
Georgia.....	6,558	5,184	-19	2,686	1,374	124	5,770	31,407	13,930	184,213	145,835
Florida.....	4,949	4,084	-30	3,424	865	43	1,417	21,135	13,585	74,598	142,362
E. S. Central.....	15,408	10,863	-43	6,937	4,545	5,682	9,139	101,123	38,994	457,853	509,214
Kentucky.....	2,664	2,147	-14	1,257	517	196	1,560	20,158	7,686	81,927	73,785
Tennessee.....	4,000	3,443	-59	2,029	557	4,338	3,113	14,137	8,317	134,243	148,786
Alabama.....	3,665	3,271	-18	2,249	394	610	2,714	43,037	12,460	155,634	182,989
Mississippi.....	5,079	2,002	-50	1,402	3,077	538	1,752	23,791	10,531	86,049	103,654
W. S. Central.....	46,482	41,977	+7	11,398	4,505	28,894	24,192	133,625	53,123	535,514	869,292
Arkansas.....	2,779	2,003	-40	893	776	4,669	2,177	7,966	4,690	58,819	87,236
Louisiana.....	5,277	4,675	-22	3,554	602	1,382	4,873	20,375	7,911	100,413	118,616
Oklahoma.....	4,603	3,930	-17	808	673	608	2,323	35,991	8,900	80,536	139,190
Texas.....	33,823	31,369	+24	6,143	2,454	26,235	14,819	69,293	31,622	295,746	524,250
Mountain.....	16,535	14,032	-44	8,169	2,503	12,494	9,989	56,037	18,059	199,392	333,660
Montana.....	1,152	733	-39	364	419	426	1,324	4,380	1,462	26,886	44,506
Idaho.....	2,154	1,754	-65	707	400	153	1,044	6,733	2,464	15,313	48,185
Wyoming.....	793	453	-58	202	340	17	427	3,183	723	8,652	18,320
Colorado.....	3,193	2,790	-51	1,104	403	68	3,033	15,383	4,663	63,738	88,895
New Mexico.....	2,105	1,959	-62	998	146	5,793	1,554	6,047	1,592	36,227	29,537
Arizona.....	4,525	4,180	+8	3,425	345	5,674	1,299	8,023	4,247	20,575	50,172
Utah.....	1,636	1,358	-38	961	278	315	774	9,607	1,758	21,986	35,018
Nevada.....	977	805	-19	408	172	48	534	2,681	1,150	6,015	19,027
Pacific.....	28,499	25,201	-29	11,029	3,298	4,259	15,247	173,614	66,983	599,575	1,272,271
Washington.....	4,052	3,313	-47	1,590	739	223	2,885	23,075	7,743	102,870	148,751
Oregon.....	5,343	4,374	-24	1,486	969	785	3,218	16,610	5,957	35,827	123,292
California.....	19,104	17,514	-25	7,953	1,590	3,251	9,144	133,929	53,283	460,878	1,000,228
Alaska.....	266	126	-36	28	140	33	123	738	356	2,383	7,009
Hawaii.....	434	285	-21	144	149	93	151	1,504	1,126	8,837	23,296

¹ Preliminary.² Estimated.³ Decrease of less than half of 1 percent.⁴ Does not include supplemental farm placements made in cooperation with the Memphis, Tennessee, office.

TABLE 3.—Activities of Public Employment Services in the United States, November 1939—Continued

MEN									
Division and State	Placements ¹					Applications			Active file, Nov. 30, 1939
	Total	Private			Public	Total	New		
		Num-ber	Per-centage change from October	Regu-lar (over 1 month)			Num-ber	Per-centage change from October	
United States.....	172, 764	133, 258	-27	60, 173	39, 506	995, 249	339, 555	-1	4, 175, 240
New England.....	9, 248	6, 446	-18	4, 302	2, 802	53, 098	18, 033	+14	231, 481
Maine.....	932	636	-6	415	296	6, 144	1, 316	-8	24, 003
New Hampshire.....	1, 752	1, 176	-35	872	576	5, 154	1, 560	+42	16, 922
Vermont.....	629	417	-3	167	212	1, 955	540	+18	11, 052
Massachusetts.....	2, 184	1, 582	+6	1, 203	602	24, 510	10, 147	+15	100, 913
Rhode Island.....	592	358	-23	271	234	3, 719	1, 708	+19	24, 918
Connecticut.....	3, 159	2, 277	-23	1, 374	882	11, 616	2, 762	+6	53, 673
Middle Atlantic.....	22, 941	17, 426	-17	10, 107	5, 515	203, 620	69, 473	-13	883, 971
New York.....	11, 610	8, 933	-15	4, 186	2, 677	106, 504	43, 144	-17	368, 852
New Jersey.....	3, 933	3, 614	-20	2, 512	319	28, 020	10, 391	-5	198, 613
Pennsylvania.....	7, 398	4, 879	-17	3, 409	2, 519	69, 096	15, 938	-10	316, 506
East North Central.....	28, 083	25, 229	-18	12, 763	2, 854	186, 071	64, 074	+5	810, 054
Ohio.....	7, 276	6, 619	-20	3, 107	657	46, 890	13, 304	+2	193, 420
Indiana.....	3, 938	3, 747	-18	2, 011	191	33, 470	12, 598	+13	147, 952
Illinois.....	6, 883	6, 750	-4	3, 097	133	36, 742	20, 565	+6	154, 597
Michigan.....	6, 525	5, 549	-24	3, 234	976	49, 555	12, 730	+3	178, 152
Wisconsin.....	3, 461	2, 564	-31	1, 314	897	19, 414	4, 877	-7	135, 933
West North Central.....	17, 833	12, 575	-41	4, 381	5, 258	85, 187	25, 330	-3	375, 369
Minnesota.....	3, 514	2, 575	-27	1, 133	939	16, 706	3, 728	-5	102, 395
Iowa.....	4, 187	2, 807	-27	888	1, 380	13, 042	3, 190	+17	64, 835
Missouri.....	4, 535	3, 709	-55	1, 253	826	30, 030	11, 790	-7	98, 597
North Dakota.....	1, 308	1, 041	-47	359	267	3, 439	897	(²)	18, 602
South Dakota.....	800	408	-22	102	392	3, 988	832	-8	26, 580
Nebraska.....	1, 782	698	-54	216	1, 084	6, 774	1, 550	-15	34, 148
Kansas.....	1, 707	1, 337	-21	430	370	11, 208	3, 343	+2	30, 212
South Atlantic.....	25, 333	17, 014	-26	9, 132	8, 319	123, 863	42, 479	+2	483, 166
Delaware.....	864	693	-9	454	171	2, 129	444	-8	8, 058
Maryland.....	2, 638	1, 999	-15	1, 112	639	14, 169	3, 852	+1	46, 520
District of Columbia.....	1, 559	1, 126	-21	425	433	6, 216	2, 138	-3	22, 237
Virginia.....	2, 624	1, 667	-32	971	957	14, 057	4, 853	-2	32, 466
West Virginia.....	2, 588	1, 898	+5	1, 054	690	21, 234	2, 315	-1	54, 622
North Carolina.....	4, 793	2, 631	-41	1, 100	2, 162	19, 097	7, 044	-2	49, 078
South Carolina.....	2, 039	997	-36	503	1, 042	9, 793	3, 572	-2	80, 806
Georgia.....	4, 906	3, 540	-18	1, 462	1, 366	23, 070	9, 909	(²)	136, 221
Florida.....	3, 322	2, 463	-36	2, 051	859	14, 098	8, 352	+18	53, 158
East South Central.....	10, 265	5, 737	-51	3, 283	4, 528	76, 317	26, 861	-15	359, 008
Kentucky.....	1, 681	1, 169	-19	664	512	14, 482	4, 953	-33	63, 756
Tennessee.....	2, 122	1, 566	-67	687	556	8, 100	4, 640	-13	101, 489
Alabama.....	2, 532	2, 142	-21	1, 391	390	34, 525	9, 472	+13	124, 557
Mississippi.....	3, 930	860	-70	541	3, 070	19, 210	7, 796	-26	69, 206
West South Central.....	29, 466	25, 012	+3	4, 891	4, 454	98, 044	35, 997	+8	418, 536
Arkansas.....	1, 814	1, 046	-48	234	768	5, 642	3, 230	+1	47, 489
Louisiana.....	3, 227	2, 642	-33	2, 010	585	15, 221	5, 633	+6	80, 054
Oklahoma.....	2, 677	2, 007	-32	247	670	28, 492	6, 461	+15	66, 640
Texas.....	21, 748	19, 317	+25	2, 400	2, 431	48, 689	20, 673	+8	224, 353
Mountain.....	11, 395	8, 951	-55	5, 253	2, 444	44, 349	12, 519	+7	162, 573
Montana.....	917	513	-49	241	404	3, 635	996	+1	21, 912
Idaho.....	1, 466	1, 076	-74	266	390	5, 525	1, 844	-3	13, 338
Wyoming.....	630	292	-69	129	338	2, 607	489	+2	6, 943
Colorado.....	1, 915	1, 523	-65	490	392	11, 824	3, 055	+3	51, 060
New Mexico.....	1, 508	1, 365	-68	750	143	4, 930	1, 122	(²)	30, 507
Arizona.....	3, 204	2, 860	+6	2, 485	344	6, 076	3, 026	+38	16, 366
Utah.....	1, 081	814	-54	575	267	7, 632	1, 127	-13	17, 715
Nevada.....	674	508	-24	317	166	2, 120	860	+7	4, 732
Pacific.....	17, 637	14, 591	-37	5, 947	3, 046	122, 842	43, 630	+14	441, 991
Washington.....	2, 646	2, 000	-51	967	646	17, 622	5, 095	(²)	83, 045
Oregon.....	3, 816	2, 859	-40	979	957	13, 091	4, 327	+12	27, 486
California.....	11, 175	9, 732	-32	4, 001	1, 443	92, 129	34, 208	+17	331, 460
Alaska.....	221	81	-50	21	140	670	321	-14	2, 134
Hawaii.....	342	196	-24	93	146	1, 188	838	-15	6, 957

¹ Preliminary. ² Increase of less than half of 1 percent. ³ Decrease of less than half of 1 percent.

TABLE 3.—Activities of Public Employment Services in the United States, November 1939—Continued

WOMEN

Division and State	Placements ¹				Applications			Active file, Nov. 30, 1939
	Total	Private			Total	New		
		Num- ber	Percent- age change from October	Regu- lar		Num- ber	Percent- age change from October	
United States.....	116,680	115,676	-8	64,343	421,357	199,417	-2	1,446,457
New England.....	5,343	5,325	-16	3,562	30,728	14,453	+4	133,180
Maine.....	523	522	-23	426	2,614	1,147	-14	9,017
New Hampshire.....	382	374	-18	278	2,359	922	+38	8,555
Vermont.....	282	281	-17	179	881	414	+51	4,167
Massachusetts.....	1,745	1,742	-6	1,361	16,075	8,388	+6	66,199
Rhode Island.....	499	495	-12	291	2,470	1,294	+2	17,398
Connecticut.....	1,912	1,911	-22	1,027	6,329	2,288	-5	27,844
Middle Atlantic.....	24,412	24,346	-2	13,573	103,926	47,075	-10	354,208
New York.....	11,909	11,872	+4	5,805	55,651	26,668	-14	172,246
New Jersey.....	6,533	6,525	-9	3,677	19,288	9,231	(²)	78,895
Pennsylvania.....	5,970	5,949	-3	4,091	28,987	11,176	-8	103,067
East North Central.....	24,252	23,969	-3	14,517	77,996	39,018	+1	244,496
Ohio.....	6,955	6,925	+7	4,001	20,394	9,836	+2	65,754
Indiana.....	3,967	3,938	-9	2,517	14,699	6,880	(²)	47,523
Illinois.....	6,656	6,649	+4	3,661	17,810	11,586	+7	51,951
Michigan.....	3,916	3,910	-10	2,679	15,766	7,337	-5	48,092
Wisconsin.....	2,758	2,547	-21	1,659	9,327	3,379	(²)	31,176
West North Central.....	10,905	10,700	-16	5,539	34,845	15,423	-8	121,980
Minnesota.....	2,519	2,514	-11	1,402	7,832	2,814	-9	27,865
Iowa.....	2,451	2,284	-5	1,021	4,954	2,044	-2	21,460
Missouri.....	2,697	2,693	-39	1,623	13,322	6,722	-13	43,034
North Dakota.....	969	960	+5	370	1,626	657	(²)	5,068
South Dakota.....	369	364	+16	163	1,442	507	-21	7,501
Nebraska.....	651	644	-14	384	2,113	1,027	-12	9,454
Kansas.....	1,249	1,241	+8	576	3,556	1,652	+12	7,598
South Atlantic.....	13,470	13,420	-19	8,935	50,631	24,973	+10	180,238
Delaware.....	948	948	-34	521	1,252	425	+13	4,048
Maryland.....	1,193	1,190	+17	729	5,540	2,547	+7	14,871
District of Columbia.....	1,796	1,794	-10	852	4,702	2,111	+14	13,572
Virginia.....	1,813	1,810	-24	1,340	6,561	3,006	-3	14,405
West Virginia.....	1,391	1,386	-7	759	4,536	1,470	+6	12,079
North Carolina.....	2,475	2,459	-30	1,691	9,085	4,454	+7	25,979
South Carolina.....	575	568	-23	446	3,581	1,706	-10	25,852
Georgia.....	1,652	1,644	-22	1,224	8,337	4,021	-5	47,992
Florida.....	1,627	1,621	-16	1,373	7,037	5,233	+60	21,440
East South Central.....	5,143	5,126	-29	3,654	24,806	12,133	-14	98,845
Kentucky.....	983	978	-8	593	5,676	2,733	-11	18,171
Tennessee.....	1,878	1,877	-50	1,342	6,037	3,677	-4	32,754
Alabama.....	1,133	1,129	-12	858	8,512	2,988	-5	31,077
Mississippi.....	1,149	1,142	+5	861	4,581	2,735	-31	16,843
West South Central.....	17,016	16,965	+14	6,507	35,581	17,126	+6	116,978
Arkansas.....	965	957	-27	659	2,324	1,460	-4	11,330
Louisiana.....	2,050	2,033	+1	1,544	5,154	2,278	-11	20,359
Oklahoma.....	1,926	1,923	+10	561	7,499	2,439	-2	13,896
Texas.....	12,075	12,052	+22	3,743	20,604	10,949	+14	71,393
Mountain.....	5,140	5,081	-6	2,916	11,688	5,540	+1	36,819
Montana.....	235	220	+8	123	745	466	+7	4,974
Idaho.....	688	678	-24	441	1,208	620	-13	1,975
Wyoming.....	163	161	+28	73	576	234	+5	1,709
Colorado.....	1,278	1,267	-7	614	3,559	1,608	-1	12,678
New Mexico.....	597	594	-33	248	1,117	470	-4	5,720
Arizona.....	1,321	1,320	+15	940	1,947	1,221	+14	4,209
Utah.....	555	544	+22	386	1,975	631	-8	4,271
Nevada.....	303	297	-8	91	561	290	+27	1,283
Pacific.....	10,862	10,610	-13	5,082	50,772	23,353	(³)	157,584
Washington.....	1,406	1,313	-41	623	5,453	2,648	-9	19,825
Oregon.....	1,527	1,515	+61	507	3,519	1,630	+1	8,341
California.....	7,929	7,782	-14	3,952	41,800	19,075	+2	129,418
Alaska.....	45	45	+32	7	68	35	-33	249
Hawaii.....	92	89	-13	51	316	288	-43	1,880

¹ Preliminary. ² Decrease of less than half of 1 percent. ³ Increase of less than half of 1 percent.

TABLE 4.—Activities of Public Employment Services in the United States, November 1939

VETERANS

Division and State	Placements ¹					Applications			Active file, Nov. 30, 1939
	Total	Private			Public	Total	New		
		Num- ber	Per- centage change from October	Regular (over 1 month)			Num- ber	Per- centage change from October	
United States.....	10,141	7,861	-24	2,836	2,280	55,605	12,939	+3	235,430
New England.....	544	366	-22	223	178	3,091	766	+7	14,483
Maine.....	54	36	-10	22	18	411	63	+5	1,472
New Hampshire.....	90	58	-40	39	32	290	69	+23	1,308
Vermont.....	32	22	+29	5	10	116	17	0	687
Massachusetts.....	121	83	-16	69	38	1,305	422	+7	6,566
Rhode Island.....	24	12	-72	9	12	214	71	+25	944
Connecticut.....	223	155	-10	79	68	755	124	-7	3,506
Middle Atlantic.....	1,016	770	-20	393	246	7,549	1,707	-21	38,821
New York.....	468	362	-19	131	106	2,547	853	-28	13,596
New Jersey.....	196	168	-23	104	28	1,197	257	+3	9,456
Pennsylvania.....	352	240	-21	168	112	3,805	597	-19	15,769
East North Central.....	1,726	1,517	-13	675	209	11,785	2,758	+18	47,658
Ohio.....	499	466	-20	178	43	2,772	693	+9	10,378
Indiana.....	210	190	+1	113	20	1,955	553	+48	10,235
Illinois.....	399	344	+1	122	55	1,713	691	+18	6,108
Michigan.....	412	370	-21	187	42	3,690	605	+13	11,510
Wisconsin.....	206	157	-15	75	49	1,655	216	+9	9,427
West North Central.....	1,408	1,051	-21	232	357	5,727	1,224	+10	26,720
Minnesota.....	250	193	-21	74	57	1,216	159	+3	9,301
Iowa.....	426	298	-36	50	128	942	151	+28	4,821
Missouri.....	383	353	+10	65	30	2,005	636	+16	5,619
North Dakota.....	52	38	-42	8	14	113	24	-20	1,114
South Dakota.....	79	49	-6	7	30	244	36	-3	1,984
Nebraska.....	102	39	-52	10	63	471	60	-29	1,775
Kansas.....	116	81	-20	18	35	736	158	+17	2,106
South Atlantic.....	1,197	791	-25	343	406	6,329	1,400	-1	24,933
Delaware.....	45	36	-5	19	9	126	22	+10	585
Maryland.....	158	123	-16	59	35	724	112	-12	3,070
Dist. of Columbia.....	147	92	-10	21	55	551	166	+4	2,055
Virginia.....	143	77	-42	25	66	637	94	-14	1,390
West Virginia.....	99	70	-19	38	29	1,378	65	+12	3,296
North Carolina.....	188	92	-40	37	96	722	160	-18	2,065
South Carolina.....	95	45	-26	17	50	361	111	-19	3,722
Georgia.....	191	166	-22	66	25	958	203	-12	5,317
Florida.....	131	90	-25	61	41	872	467	+21	3,433
East South Central.....	482	324	-59	134	158	3,420	907	-12	16,382
Kentucky.....	109	81	-11	38	28	823	168	-11	3,110
Tennessee.....	151	106	-80	23	45	398	212	-30	6,083
Alabama.....	122	110	+2	59	12	1,602	284	+21	5,172
Mississippi.....	100	27	-61	14	73	597	243	-21	2,017
West South Central.....	1,577	1,353	+10	209	224	5,663	1,204	+18	21,208
Arkansas.....	106	68	-45	15	38	262	133	-15	3,064
Louisiana.....	149	115	-7	89	34	602	156	+3	3,185
Oklahoma.....	183	144	-27	11	39	2,877	390	+40	5,586
Texas.....	1,139	1,026	+31	94	113	1,922	525	+21	9,373
Mountain.....	781	593	-43	309	188	2,931	602	+8	10,601
Montana.....	91	48	-6	25	43	263	32	-23	1,539
Idaho.....	166	131	-62	22	35	382	83	-28	638
Wyoming.....	44	18	-42	6	26	191	19	-27	501
Colorado.....	109	91	-60	30	18	866	171	+38	3,297
New Mexico.....	47	37	-55	25	10	225	41	-5	1,929
Arizona.....	199	176	+35	155	23	393	166	+28	1,045
Utah.....	52	29	-67	18	23	460	41	+46	1,319
Nevada.....	73	63	-31	28	10	151	49	+9	333
Pacific.....	1,376	1,081	-35	312	295	9,030	2,334	+9	34,106
Washington.....	196	160	-10	67	36	1,047	155	-1	6,114
Oregon.....	263	165	-48	60	98	892	169	0	1,820
California.....	917	756	-35	185	161	7,091	2,010	+11	26,172
Alaska.....	19	4	-50	1	15	55	20	-38	156
Hawaii.....	15	11	-15	5	4	25	17	-23	362

¹ Preliminary.

UNEMPLOYMENT-COMPENSATION OPERATIONS IN NOVEMBER 1939 ¹

AFTER declining sharply in September and October, the volume of benefits to unemployed workers in November rose to approximately \$28,350,000, an increase of 6.2 percent over benefit payments in October. More than half the States reported increased benefit payments during the month. In general, the sharpest increases in payments occurred in those States which experienced sharp increases in receipts of initial and reopened claims during October. Reports from those States last month indicated that seasonal lay-offs, and the new claims filed by workers previously ineligible and by workers involved in labor disputes contributed to the increase. Apparently a considerable number of workers who filed initial claims for reasons unrelated to labor disputes, were eligible for payments and drew benefits in November after serving waiting periods during part of October. The largest increases occurred in California and North Dakota, which reported increases of about 56 and 85 percent, respectively. Increases ranging between 25 and 50 percent were reported by 8 States. Although 21 States showed reductions in the amount of benefits paid in November, 12 of these States reported decreases of less than 10 percent. The largest relative decline was reported by South Dakota, where administrative factors chiefly contributed to the reduction.

The volume of initial and reopened claims received in central offices increased for the second successive month. Receipts of these claims totaled approximately 538,000, an increase of 7.5 percent over the preceding month's total. The largest relative increases occurred in some of the Rocky Mountain States, although increases in excess of 25 percent were reported also by Iowa, Maryland, Mississippi, Montana, North Dakota, and Utah. Decreases were reported by 17 States; in 10 of these States the reductions were less than 10 percent.

Nearly \$794,000,000 has been paid since benefits were first payable; of this amount, approximately \$398,000,000 has been paid since January 1, 1939, with California, New York, Pennsylvania, and Michigan accounting for about half the total paid this year.

¹ Prepared by Research and Statistics Division, Bureau of Employment Security, Social Security Board.

Unemployment-Compensation Claims and Benefits, by States, November 1939

[Preliminary data reported by State agencies, corrected to December 8, 1939]

State	Initial and re-opened claims received		Continued claims received		Benefits paid			Date benefits first payable	Amount of payments since benefits first payable
	Number	Percentage change from October	Number	Percentage change from October	Number	All payments	Percentage change from October		
All States.....	538,015	+7.5	2,977,931	+7.9	2,765,526	\$28,347,143	+6.2		\$793,923,913
Alabama.....	6,536	-0.1	40,619	+0.4	36,549	263,020	-0.6	Jan. 1938	12,130,278
Alaska.....	636	+10.0	2,775	+43.5	1,519	21,372	+28.6	Jan. 1939	316,433
Arizona.....	1,864	-10.3	10,056	(1)	9,450	103,973	+3.0	Jan. 1938	3,309,004
Arkansas.....	5,014	+19.0	18,953	-4.3	18,169	113,043	-4.9	Jan. 1939	1,687,829
California.....	48,801	+14.6	351,437	+35.0	361,350	3,762,244	+55.7	Jan. 1938	58,656,708
Colorado.....	3,841	+7	17,821	+9.4	17,024	170,136	+8.6	Jan. 1939	3,230,954
Connecticut.....	12,250	+18.4	29,133	-10.0	28,552	262,382	-20.1	Jan. 1938	17,096,987
Delaware.....	1,439	-13.8	5,384	-10.5	5,229	43,574	-8.4	Jan. 1939	663,873
Dist. of Col.....	2,037	+17.5	16,940	+11.0	11,547	91,484	+3.9	Jan. 1938	2,996,742
Florida.....	4,918	-20.8	41,376	-30.1	39,540	338,280	-32.2	Jan. 1939	3,214,530
Georgia.....	10,145	+6.5	36,816	+3.5	36,346	236,955	-2.6	do.....	2,982,819
Hawaii.....	875	-32.8	5,069	+10.7	5,061	41,763	+15.9	do.....	245,430
Idaho.....	1,881	+52.6	4,895	+42.3	5,234	55,747	+28.2	Sept. 1938	2,465,522
Illinois.....	42,126	+9.2	268,123	-6	264,612	3,024,365	-3.1	July 1939	13,669,322
Indiana.....	9,214	+5.5	61,081	+38.7	60,697	615,504	+46.3	Apr. 1938	25,963,096
Iowa.....	7,883	+28.6	21,326	+6.2	20,201	178,413	-6.2	July 1938	7,566,088
Kansas.....	4,487	+10.0	13,474	+6.6	13,541	121,983	+6.3	Jan. 1939	2,141,682
Kentucky.....	3,540	+9.5	29,177	-4.7	26,506	210,144	-11.0	do.....	4,673,283
Louisiana.....	10,454	-4	44,250	-7	41,568	341,448	-6.8	Jan. 1938	9,604,139
Maine.....	4,722	+18.1	33,374	+16.5	29,519	198,698	+25.0	do.....	7,327,068
Maryland.....	5,041	+30.7	54,255	+12.1	35,195	325,355	+4.2	do.....	15,537,854
Massachusetts.....	43,870	+6.3	154,583	+3.4	151,734	1,473,379	+8.3	do.....	45,933,770
Michigan.....	22,120	-2.3	164,782	+24.0	145,458	1,890,152	+9.2	July 1938	75,445,014
Minnesota.....	6,726	+20.6	37,375	+8.2	34,319	338,567	-8	Jan. 1938	15,211,973
Mississippi.....	6,572	+25.1	18,342	+30.9	15,576	88,713	+20.5	Apr. 1938	2,741,917
Missouri.....	17,012	-4.9	63,095	+36.3	60,374	496,543	+41.9	Jan. 1939	4,964,778
Montana.....	3,294	+27.1	16,103	+16.1	14,110	154,431	+12.1	July 1939	563,656
Nebraska.....	2,743	+14.9	9,141	+18.0	8,565	75,727	+17.7	Jan. 1939	1,198,041
Nevada.....	1,176	+34.6	6,482	+30.8	5,320	68,883	+21.8	do.....	730,126
N. Hampshire.....	3,504	-4.6	18,403	+42.5	17,957	138,378	+47.2	Jan. 1938	4,120,920
New Jersey.....	16,578	-4.2	92,153	+13.3	90,519	859,735	+14.0	Jan. 1939	13,980,861
New Mexico.....	1,169	-9.4	9,045	-4.4	8,475	82,980	-3.8	Dec. 1938	1,147,170
New York.....	65,576	+7.5	458,051	+15.8	436,294	5,139,236	+6.1	Jan. 1938	161,962,376
North Carolina.....	12,514	+14.2	59,179	-32.1	32,673	176,287	-18.1	do.....	12,412,169
North Dakota.....	705	+29.8	3,816	+29.1	3,469	36,816	+84.8	Jan. 1939	510,957
Ohio.....	17,238	+15.1	153,985	+4.8	130,818	1,211,118	-1.5	do.....	21,146,187
Oklahoma.....	7,584	-10.7	29,276	+17.2	27,269	262,617	+12.2	Dec. 1938	4,037,182
Oregon.....	4,440	-1.2	32,173	+27.5	18,245	206,540	+13.5	Jan. 1938	9,714,240
Pennsylvania.....	38,104	+4.6	228,466	-5.2	216,760	2,330,487	-14.5	do.....	123,531,567
Rhode Island.....	9,197	+22.7	32,834	-22.8	32,834	310,897	-21.6	do.....	14,644,312
South Carolina.....	4,730	-8.1	24,780	+10.5	23,636	146,450	+2.9	July 1938	2,590,535
South Dakota.....	728	-12.0	2,219	-62.4	2,053	15,513	-62.1	Jan. 1939	369,205
Tennessee.....	9,582	+18.8	63,700	-4	47,797	348,961	+3.0	Jan. 1938	10,369,288
Texas.....	22,837	+14.1	60,696	+5.5	46,552	730,770	+2	do.....	19,181,324
Utah.....	2,812	+32.5	9,094	-7.5	8,521	88,921	-10.6	do.....	4,046,800
Vermont.....	1,618	+16.0	5,036	+5.2	4,571	34,809	-6.1	do.....	1,355,441
Virginia.....	7,723	+10.8	31,153	+6	30,254	228,930	-4.2	do.....	9,863,756
Washington.....	7,046	+22.4	38,813	+39.8	36,972	442,543	+31.7	Jan. 1939	5,548,779
West Virginia.....	3,506	-24.1	18,209	-32.1	18,900	163,857	-37.6	Jan. 1938	16,126,889
Wisconsin.....	7,841	-4.5	23,966	-17.2	23,380	224,180	+2.0	July 1936	14,833,223
Wyoming.....	1,766	+31.4	6,647	+33.4	4,712	60,840	+32.7	Jan. 1939	1,061,816

1 Decrease of less than a tenth of 1 percent.

2 Represents number of compensable weeks for which 31,283 checks were written.

3 Compensable continued claims only.

4 Excludes claims for partial unemployment.

BENEFITS PAID BY A. F. OF L. AND RAILROAD UNIONS, 1938

A TOTAL of \$25,586,289 was paid in benefits to members, in 1938, by 65 national and international unions directly affiliated with the American Federation of Labor and the 4 unaffiliated railroad brotherhoods. This amount, however, does not include the benefits paid by national and international affiliated labor organizations which did not report to the Federation or by local unions chartered by national and international organizations which have set up local benefit funds for their members.

More than half (\$13,125,853) of the total reported expenditure was for death benefits, and over one-fifth (\$5,334,207) for old-age benefits. Details of the amounts paid by each reporting organization for specified services are given in the following table.¹ The figures are rounded out to the nearest dollar.

Benefit Services of Standard National and International Unions by Type of Benefit Paid, 1938

Organization	Total	Death	Sickness	Unemployment	Old age	Disability	Miscellaneous
Total.....	\$25,586,289	\$13,125,853	\$1,306,768	\$2,582,543	\$5,334,207	\$1,641,091	\$1,595,827
Bakery and Confectionery Workers' International Union of America.....	231,959	43,232	183,897				4,830
Barbers' International Union, Journeymen.....	165,496	44,346	121,150				
Blacksmiths, Drop Forgers and Helpers, International Brotherhood of.....	8,800	8,800					
Boiler Makers, Iron Ship Builders and Helpers of America, International Brotherhood of.....	343,487	¹ 341,668	1,225				594
Bookbinders, International Brotherhood of.....	102,020	72,100	² 5,628	² 22,878		² 611	² 804
Boot and Shoe Workers' Union.....	24,400	24,400					
Brewery, Flour, Cereal and Soft Drink Workers of America, International Union of the United.....	91,457	8,425	6,895	1,850			74,287
Bricklayers, Masons and Plasterers' International Union of America.....	815,013	228,370			586,642		
Brick and Clay Workers of America, The United.....	2,000	2,000					
Bridge and Structural Iron Workers, International Association.....	140,186	32,815			107,371		
Carmen of America, Brotherhood Railway.....	174,400	166,800				7,600	
Carpenters and Joiners of America, United Brotherhood of.....	1,107,213	487,928			606,585	12,700	
Carvers' Association of North America, International Wood.....	2,400	2,400					
Clerks, National Federation of Post Office.....	73,931	50,500	18,431			5,000	
Clerks, Brotherhood of Railway.....	328,552	328,552					
Clerks' International Protective Association, Retail.....	37,546	5,850					31,696

See footnotes at end of table.

¹ American Federation of Labor. Report of the Executive Council to the 59th Annual Convention at Cincinnati, Washington, 1939.

Benefit Services of Standard National and International Unions by Type of Benefit Paid, 1938—Continued

Organization	Total	Death	Sickness	Unemployment	Old age	Disability	Miscellaneous
Coopers' International Union of North America	\$4,500	\$4,500					
Electrical Workers of America, International Brotherhood of	920,971	526,667			\$394,305		
Engineers, International Union of Operating	71,766	67,000					\$4,766
Engravers' Union of North America, International Photo	1,442,868	197,542	\$41,832	\$1,154,950		\$3,185	45,359
Firemen and Oilers, International Brotherhood of	28,670	28,670					
Garment Workers of America, United	18,650	18,650					
Glass Bottle Blowers' Association of the United States and Canada	45,550	45,550					
Glass Workers' Union, American Flint	39,482	24,600					14,882
Granite Cutters' International Association of America, The	57,375	56,625				750	
Hatters, Cap and Millinery Workers' International Union, United	45,047	10,726		8,898			25,430
Hod Carriers, Building and Common Laborers' Union of America, International	53,800	53,800					
Hotel and Restaurant Employees' International Alliance and Bartenders' International League of America	566,428	147,206	58,076				361,147
Lathers, International Union of Wood, Wire, and Metal	26,009	26,009					
Letter Carriers, National Association of	351,329	195,317	156,012				
Lithographers' International Protective and Beneficial Association of the United States and Canada	187,200	61,200	13,000	100,000	6,000		7,000
Machinists, International Association of	751,875	282,975	18,400	295,000	1,500	5,000	149,000
Maintenance of Way Employees, Brotherhood of	262,677	262,677					
Marble, Slate and Stone Polishers, Rubbers and Sawyers, Tile and Marble Setters Helpers and Terrazzo Helpers, International Association of	3,743	3,608	100	25			10
Masters, Mates, and Pilots of America, National Organization	4,215	4,100	65				50
Meat Cutters and Butcher Workmen of North America, Amalgamated	189,950	41,950	73,000	230,000			45,000
Metal Workers' International Association, Sheet	30,946	26,200					4,746
Mine Workers of America, International Union Progressive	140,000	140,000					
Molders' Union of North America, International	466,351	205,238	73,700	161,613	25,800		
Musicians, American Federation of	443,867	236,543		77,324			
Painters, Decorators and Paperhangers of America, Brotherhood of	289,557	282,532				7,025	
Paper Makers, International Brotherhood of	30,688	13,688					17,000
Pattern Makers' League of North America	27,379	18,433					8,946
Plasterers' International Association of the United States and Canada, Operative	68,925	66,525					2,400
Plumbers and Steam Fitters of the United States and Canada, United Association of	298,600	160,155	135,979				2,466

See footnotes at end of table.

Benefit Services of Standard National and International Unions by Type of Benefit Paid, 1938—Continued

Organization	Total	Death	Sickness	Unemployment	Old age	Disability	Miscellaneous
Polishers, Buffers, Platers, and Helpers' International Union, Metal	\$56,500	\$9,800					\$46,700
Potters, National Brotherhood of Operative	30,940	25,335	\$5,605				
Printing Pressmen's and Assistants' Union of North America, International	716,919	⁴ 285,593	² 57,643	² \$129,651	⁴ \$198,527	² \$40,475	5,029
Pulp, Sulphite and Paper Mill Workers of the United States and Canada, International Brotherhood of	7,200						7,200
Railway Employees of America, Amalgamated Association of Street and Electric	1,141,150	⁴ 793,854	77,902		⁴ 236,105	3,188	30,100
Railway Mail Association	188,545	44,100				144,445	
Roofers, Damp and Waterproof Workers' Association, United Slate, Tile, and Composition	17,000	17,000					
Seafarers International Union of North America	18,458	² 10,858	² 4,200				² 3,400
Sheep Shearers Union of North America	3,962	1,147			2,400		415
Stereotypers' and Electrotypers' Union of North America, International	483,859	⁷ 135,160	¹ 15,061	323,660	8,800		1,178
Stonecutters' Association of North America, Journeymen	12,200	12,200					
Stove Mounters' International Union	27,807	9,875					17,932
Switchmen's Union of North America	173,975	149,325				14,875	9,775
Telegraphers, Order of Railroad	221,013	217,494					3,519
Telegraphers' Union of North America, The Commercial	2,100	2,100					
Tobacco Workers' International Union	34,884	1,000	33,284				
Typographical Union, International	3,827,744	691,855	68,605	271,885	2,713,819		81,580
Upholsterers' International Union of North America	30,466	1,666	6,955				21,845
Wall Paper Craftsmen and Workers of North America, United	3,500	3,500					
Weavers' Protective Association, American Wire	32,600	1,600	1,000				30,000
Brotherhood Locomotive Engineers	1,675,515	1,434,226				84,829	156,461
Brotherhood of Locomotive Firemen and Enginemen	2,506,126	1,264,540			436,564	622,502	182,520
Brotherhood of Railroad Trainmen	2,823,294	2,026,982	129,122	4,816	9,788	538,777	113,809
Order of Railway Conductors of America	1,033,257	799,173				150,129	83,954

¹ Includes disability benefits.² Paid by local unions.³ Includes old-age pensions.⁴ Includes local union benefits.⁵ Includes sick benefits and old-age pensions.⁶ Includes sick and disability benefits.⁷ Includes disability and local union benefits.

Cooperation

RECENT LEGISLATION RELATING TO CONSUMERS' COOPERATIVES

State Legislation

TWO important legislative measures affecting cooperatives were adopted in 1939. The North Dakota Legislature (Acts of 1939, ch. 4) created a Division of Cooperatives in the State Department of Agriculture and Labor, to serve "as a source of cooperation and information in the establishment and/or maintenance of cooperatives generally." The division was established immediately and has already begun to carry out the functions to which it was directed: "To assemble, compile, and maintain files of statistical data relating to the work and progress of cooperative enterprises * * * carry standard forms and outlines for use and reference in organization work * * * disseminate such information and materials for the use and benefit of established cooperatives and new cooperative projects in process of organization."

New Mexico which has heretofore had no special act under which cooperatives could organize, passed a general consumers' cooperative law (Acts of 1939, ch. 164). The point of interest in connection with this law is that the measure as passed is the "model cooperative law" drawn up in conferences between the cooperative leaders and the Consumers' Project and Division of Labor Standards in the United States Department of Labor. The only deviations from the model were in the fees and taxation provisions.

The 1939 session of the Michigan Legislature passed two measures authorizing, respectively, the formation of nonprofit medical-care associations (ch. 108) and nonprofit hospital-service associations (ch. 109). Proponents of cooperative medical and hospital service are concerned as to the effect of chapter 108 upon the development of cooperative associations for medical care, for it is specifically provided therein that although the public shall be represented on the board of directors of associations formed under the act, "a majority of the directors shall be at all times persons approved by the officers of the medical professions duly organized to promote State-wide the science and art of medicine."

A recent decision by the Supreme Court of Washington (*Inland Empire Rural Electrification v. Department of Public Service*, 92 Pac. (2d) 258), declared that a nonprofit cooperative electric association serving members only is not subject to the jurisdiction of the State Department of Public Service. The court held that such an association was not subject to public regulation of its rates, service, etc., because it was not a public-service corporation, there being "complete identity of interest between the corporate agency supplying the service and the persons who are being served." The Rural Electrification News, which reports this case in its September 1939 issue, states that it is the first of its kind since the beginning of the Rural Electrification Administration program. Two somewhat similar cases involving the question of commission control, in Alabama and North Carolina, were determined by reference to the law under which the associations concerned were incorporated.

Early in the year the Wisconsin Legislature abolished the Wisconsin Development Authority, which had been created in 1937 to aid public power projects. One of its chief activities had been to perform engineering work for rural electric cooperatives.

In the same session an attempt was made by organized private retailers to repeal the 1935 act which requires the teaching of cooperation in all public schools receiving State aid.¹ Another bill would have removed the authority of the State Department of Agriculture and Markets to encourage cooperatives. Both of these were killed in the State Assembly.

An act passed by the Wisconsin Legislature in May 1939 prohibited solicitation of business by licensed funeral directors or licensed embalmers. Fearing this would be construed to prevent cooperative burial associations from seeking new members, these associations sought a ruling by the State attorney general. In September he ruled that the law does not prohibit a cooperative burial association from seeking new members, provided the solicitation is not done by its funeral director or embalmer.

Federal Measures

Among the measures introduced (but not acted upon) in the first session of the 76th Congress of the United States was a bill, identical with the "model" law noted above, to allow the incorporation of cooperative associations in the District of Columbia. Most of the consumers' cooperatives now operating in the District were incorporated under the law of Virginia, which, however, restricts the use of the word "cooperative" to agricultural cooperatives. Various expedients therefore have to be adopted to signify, in the name of the consumers' association, that it is in reality a cooperative organization.

¹ For the provisions of this act see Monthly Labor Review, October 1935 (p. 901).

Another measure would have created a Division of Cooperatives in the Department of Agriculture, wherein would have been consolidated the cooperative activities of the various Government Departments. The Federal reorganization program of the Administration took precedence over this bill and no action was taken upon it.

A bill introduced in 1939, by Senator Norris, would amend the Agricultural Marketing Act so as to remove the narrow agricultural restrictions. That act has permitted the Farm Credit Administration to make loans only to farmers' cooperatives for the marketing of farm products and the purchasing of farm supplies. The amendment would permit loans also to farmers' organizations providing any kind of goods or services that the members desire. Also, by substituting "members" for "farmers" in the clause "any association in which the farmers act together," etc., the proposed amendment would widen the term "cooperative association" as used in that act to cover marketing, purchasing, and service cooperatives of mixed farmer and urban membership. As in the original act, in order to qualify for loans, such associations must limit the votes to one per member and the returns on capital to 8 percent or less, and must do not more than half of their business with nonmembers. A new clause would provide that the total number of votes allowed to the farmer members must exceed that for the nonfarmer members. This amendment would permit farmers' associations (both retail and wholesale) to admit urban cooperators or associations into membership without losing the benefits of the law. Under the present act occasions have arisen in which an association, primarily a farmers' association but having some nonfarmer members, has had to deprive its nonfarmer members of their votes in order to qualify for a needed loan.

Adoption of the amendment might result eventually in the elimination of the present duplication of cooperative facilities in some localities, where one cooperative serves farmers only and another serves the residents of the town. There has been somewhat the same situation as regards the provision of wholesaling facilities.

It appears that there is some difference of opinion among the farm cooperatives concerning this bill. It was apparent at the hearings, however, that some of the largest farmers' cooperative wholesales, as well as the Cooperative League of the U. S. A., are supporting it. It is expected that further hearings will take place at the session of Congress convening in January 1940.

TAXATION OF COOPERATIVES

TAXATION of cooperatives is a subject in which there is widespread interest and concerning which many sweeping and sometimes inaccurate statements are made.

All cooperative associations, of whatever kind, must of course pay the same local real estate and other property taxes as private business.

The State consumers' cooperative acts sometimes set a nominal fee for the filing of incorporation papers (as in Minnesota, Montana, Nevada, and North Dakota), sometimes a fee based on the number of words (as in Oregon, Pennsylvania, and Washington). Others (Iowa, Massachusetts, Missouri, North Carolina, and Wisconsin) impose a sliding scale of fees based upon the amount of capital stock. However, in a number of States (Arkansas, Colorado, Florida, Illinois, Kansas, Kentucky, Nebraska, North Carolina, and South Carolina) cooperative associations are required to pay "the same fees as imposed upon other corporations," but North Carolina reduces the fee in case capitalization is less than \$1,000.

Regarding the treatment of cooperative associations under income-tax laws, the practice varies. Under the Federal Revenue Act, farmers' cooperative associations are exempt from the Federal income tax if the majority of the members are farmers and if not more than 15 percent of their business is done with nonmembers; consumers' cooperatives have no exemption. Under most of the State laws, farmers' associations created for various purposes receive exemption, but only the law of Wisconsin exempts consumers' cooperatives supplying goods and services. Of the other types of associations either cooperative or semicooperative in nature, 6 States exempt credit unions, 25 building and loan associations, and 14 mutual or cooperative telephone companies.

Income Taxes

Recent compilations of the income-tax provisions of State laws have been made by the Bureau of the Census,¹ from which the following data are taken. The compilations show that in 1939 (including measures passed in that year) altogether 34 States and the District of Columbia had either straight corporation income-tax laws or laws providing for business-privilege taxes measured on income. Of these, 27 provided for a flat rate on all net income; these rates ranged in the various States from 1½ percent in Maryland to 8 percent in Oregon; no rate was set in New Hampshire, where the law set the

¹ U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census: Digest of State Laws Relating to Net Income Taxes, 1938, Washington, 1938; and 1939 Supplement.

"same rate as on other property." In the other 7 States a sliding scale was provided, rising in rate with the income. Generally, the rate was 1 percent on the first \$1,000 of net income, rising to as high as 8 percent on all over \$5,000 (Idaho). As noted, the tax is usually levied on all net income, or all above certain specified exemptions. In Ohio, however, only the income yield from investments is taxed and in Tennessee only the income from stocks and bonds. For purposes of taxation the "net income" of a business organization is that part of the net earnings that is placed in the reserves; dividends returned to stockholders on stock or (in the case of cooperative associations) on patronage are not taxable.

Two States (New Hampshire and Ohio) provide no exceptions whatever that would affect cooperatives.

In only Wisconsin are consumers' cooperatives free from income tax and New Mexico and Wisconsin are the only States whose consumers' cooperative laws contain any provisions regarding taxation. The Wisconsin consumers' cooperative statute provides that no cooperative association need file an income-tax return unless subject to taxation, and the income-tax law exempts all "domestic cooperative associations" of whatever type.³ No exemption is given in the income-tax act of New Mexico, and the new consumers' cooperative act imposes an annual license fee (in other words, a business-privilege fee, in addition to the income tax) of \$5.

Credit unions are exempt in the six States of Colorado, Iowa, Massachusetts, Minnesota, Oregon, and Virginia.

The most common exemption is that of building and loan associations, found in the laws of 25 States.⁴ California specifies they must be "mutual" organizations; Georgia, Iowa, Montana, and South Carolina, associations "for mutual benefit and without profit" (and Montana further specifies "domestic"); Maryland and North Dakota, domestic organizations on the mutual basis (except that in North Dakota those receiving deposits are not exempt); and Minnesota and Mississippi require that they be domestic organizations formed under the laws of that State. Cooperative banks are exempt in Iowa; and cooperative banks without capital stock in 7 States.⁵ However, the law of Missouri specifies that they must be "mutual" and those of Montana, North Carolina, and South Carolina "mutual and without profit."

Mutual ditch or irrigation companies are excused from payment of income tax in 14 States.⁶

³ An attempt was made in the 1939 session to remove this exemption.

⁴ Alabama, Arkansas, California, Colorado, Connecticut, District of Columbia, Georgia, Iowa, Kansas, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maryland, Massachusetts, Minnesota, Mississippi, Missouri, Montana, New Mexico, North Carolina, North Dakota, Pennsylvania, South Carolina, Vermont, Virginia, and Wisconsin.

⁵ Arkansas, Colorado, Georgia, Missouri, Montana, North Carolina, and South Carolina.

⁶ Alabama, Arkansas, Colorado, Georgia, Idaho, Kansas, Louisiana, Missouri, Montana, North Carolina, North Dakota, Oregon, South Carolina, and Utah.

Farmers' or other mutual insurance companies or associations writing specified types of insurance receive exemption in 15 States;⁷ generally these include hail, cyclone, and fire insurance, but a few States also include life (Oregon), casualty (Colorado, Idaho, Kansas, Louisiana, Maryland, and Utah), crop (Kansas), or windstorm (Kentucky). All kinds of mutual insurance is exempted in Arkansas, Pennsylvania, South Dakota, and Vermont, and all farmers' mutual insurance in Minnesota.

Mutual telephone companies are exempted in Idaho, cooperative or mutual rural telephone companies in Minnesota, and both mutual and cooperative organizations in 12 States.⁸ "Like organizations" are also exempted in Louisiana.

Certain States add to the enumeration of exempted mutual organizations a blanket clause extending the exemption to "like organizations,"⁹ or "like organizations of a purely local character,"¹⁰ and the laws of Montana, North Carolina, Oregon, and Utah require that, in order to qualify, such organizations must operate on dues, fees, or assessments of which all (Utah 85 percent) were collected for the sole purpose of meeting expenses.

In addition to the farmers' mutual associations, various other types of farmers' associations are exempt. The laws of 18 States¹¹ excuse "farmers', fruit growers',¹² or like organizations," but Missouri specifies that they cannot be operated for profit. Arkansas, Georgia, Iowa, North Dakota, Oregon, South Carolina, and Utah exempt only those acting as sales agents for the marketing of members' products, but Georgia and Oregon further require that the proceeds must be returned to the producers on the basis of quantity supplied (Utah, on the basis of either quantity or value). These associations must be on a cooperative basis in California ("in whole or in part"), Colorado, Idaho, Kansas, Louisiana, and New York. Arizona and Wisconsin exempt all cooperative associations marketing farm products for producers.

Wisconsin exempts, in addition to the associations marketing farm products for producers, those processing farm products for a cooperative association and charging therefor not more than enough to pay expenses plus not to exceed 8 percent on capital stock and 5 percent for surplus.

⁷ Alabama, Colorado, Georgia, Idaho, Kansas, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maryland, Missouri, Montana, North Carolina, North Dakota, Oregon, South Carolina, and Utah.

⁸ Arkansas, Colorado, Georgia, Kansas, Louisiana, Missouri, Montana, North Carolina, North Dakota, Oregon, South Carolina, and Utah.

⁹ Alabama, Idaho, Louisiana, Missouri, North Dakota, and South Carolina.

¹⁰ Georgia, Montana, and North Carolina.

¹¹ Alabama, Arkansas, California, Colorado, Georgia, Idaho, Iowa, Kansas, Louisiana, Minnesota, Mississippi, Missouri, New York, North Carolina, North Dakota, Oregon, South Carolina, and Utah.

¹² North Dakota substitutes "potato growers" for "fruit growers."

Minnesota now exempts farmers' cooperatives purchasing supplies and equipment. Formerly cooperatives of all kinds, including consumers' cooperatives, were in the excepted classes but the law was amended in 1937 to make it conform to the Federal act.

The law of Montana provides exemption for "labor, agricultural, or horticultural associations" operating on a cooperative basis, (a) marketing products for members and returning to them the proceeds of sale, on the basis of value or quantity of products supplied by them, and (b) purchasing supplies and equipment for the use of members and turning these over to them at actual cost plus necessary expenses. Associations under (b) may be capital-stock organizations, but may not pay interest on such stock in excess of the legal rate or 6 percent (whichever is greater), and substantially all of the voting stock must be owned by producers marketing their products through the association or purchasing through it. They are also permitted to maintain reasonable reserves. The nonmember marketing business must not exceed in volume that done for members; the nonmember purchasing business may not exceed 15 percent of the total purchasing business. The Utah law contains provisions almost identical with the foregoing, except that the maximum rate of interest on capital stock is set at 8 percent and the provisions apply to "farmers', fruit growers', or like associations" operating on a cooperative basis.

Louisiana and Oregon exempt any corporation organized by an exempt association or its members to finance ordinary cooperative operations.

Rural electrification cooperatives are specifically exempted in Montana and Tennessee.

The 1939 acts on nonprofit medical-care and hospital-care associations passed in Michigan, specifically exempt these associations from taxation, classing them as "charitable and benevolent institutions." It is questionable, however, whether consumers could establish cooperative associations under the medical-care provision.

In some States cooperative associations may incorporate as nonprofit organizations, in which case they would benefit if such organizations are exempted from tax. California exempts all nonprofit activities of associations operating on a cooperative or mutual basis; Iowa, "organizations or associations organized and operated exclusively for * * * nonprofitable purposes"; and Oklahoma specifies that no part of the earnings shall inure to the benefit of any private stockholder, individual, or member. Exemption for nonprofit organizations in general is found in the laws of Kentucky, Maryland, New Mexico, Virginia, Vermont, and Wisconsin.

The Tennessee law taxes corporations and "cooperatives conducted for profit * * * other than those organized for general welfare and not for profit."

Labor Laws and Court Decisions

COURT DECISIONS OF INTEREST TO LABOR

Anti-Handbill Ordinances Held Unconstitutional

IN a decision of widespread interest to labor, the United States Supreme Court recently held unconstitutional municipal ordinances of Los Angeles, Calif., Milwaukee, Wis., and Worcester, Mass., which prohibited the distribution, etc., of handbills, and an ordinance of Irvington, N. J., requiring a person to obtain a permit before canvassing or distributing circulars.¹ The Court held that the ordinances violated the rights of freedom of speech and of the press guaranteed by the Constitution. The majority opinion, delivered by Mr. Justice Roberts, followed the decisions of the Court in several similar cases.²

Three of the ordinances, which attempted to control the distribution of handbills on the theory that their purpose was to prevent the littering of the streets, had been upheld by the State courts. In Los Angeles and Worcester persons were arrested for distributing announcements of meetings, and in Milwaukee pickets were fined for distributing handbills relating to a labor dispute. Mr. Justice Roberts, in holding that the convictions were unauthorized, recognized the fact that a municipality may enact regulations in the interest of the public safety and welfare. He declared, however, that these regulations must not abridge the individual liberties of those persons who may desire "to speak, write, print, or circulate information or opinion." Any burden imposed upon the city authorities in cleaning and caring for the streets, the Justice stated, resulted from the constitutional protection of the freedom of speech and press, and must therefore be endured.

The Irvington case involved the conviction of a person who went from house to house canvassing without a permit. The Court in this case held that the ordinance was unconstitutional as to canvassing by persons who desired to present their views on political, social, or economic questions. The Court observed that pamphlets so distributed have proved to be "most effective instruments in the dissemination of opinion," and "to require a censorship through license which

¹ *Schneider v. State of New Jersey*; *Young v. People of the State of California*; *Snyder v. City of Milwaukee*; *Nichols v. Commonwealth of Massachusetts*, 60 Sup. Ct. 146.

² *Lovell v. City of Griffin*, 303 U. S. 444 (See Monthly Labor Review, April 1939, p. 882); *Hague v. Committee for Industrial Organization*, 59 Sup. Ct. 954 (See Monthly Labor Review, July 1939, p. 140).

makes impossible the free and unhampered distribution of pamphlets strikes at the very heart of the constitutional guaranties."

Wage and Hour Act Upheld in Illinois

A second decision upholding the constitutionality of the Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938 has recently been rendered.³ The case arose in the United States District Court for the Northern District of Illinois and resulted from the refusal of Montgomery Ward & Co. to respond to an order requiring the production of certain wage and hour documents. The Administrator of the Federal Wage and Hour Division desired to inspect the records of wages paid to and hours worked by the company's employees in Kansas City. The company contended that the act was unconstitutional, and that to compel the production of the documents would constitute an unreasonable search and seizure forbidden by the fourth amendment to the Constitution.

In holding the act constitutional, the court declared that it was a valid exercise of the power to regulate interstate commerce. In the regulation of wages and hours, the court said, the law was a proper exercise of police power, since the employer and employee do not stand "on a plane of equality."

As to the contention that the order to produce documents constituted an unreasonable search and seizure, because "too broad," the court declared that Congress had power to require employers to keep records, and, further, that the Wage and Hour Administrator was authorized to require the production of such records, and that such procedure did not constitute an unreasonable search and seizure as prohibited by the Constitution. Finally, the court held that this order did not violate the due-process clause of the Constitution.

In answer to the contention of the company that the legislature may require records to be kept and submitted to administrative officers only in cases involving antisocial conduct which the legislature might condemn, the court said that "at present the people of our country are convinced that the payment of wages below a level which will permit decent living conditions is antisocial and an evil which affects not only the particular wage earners but the community as a whole."

Employment Protection in Railroad Consolidations

In a unanimous opinion delivered by Mr. Justice Stone, the United States Supreme Court held that the Interstate Commerce Commission may insure the economic interests of employees where railroad consolidations are concerned.⁴ An order of the Commission had approved

³ *Andrews v. Montgomery Ward & Co., Inc.* For a record of the case upholding the act by the District Court in Puerto Rico, see *Monthly Labor Review*, November 1939, p. 1136.

⁴ *United States v. Lowden*, 60 Sup. Ct. 248.

a proposed lease of a railroad to another company on condition that the carrier would not reduce the salaries of workers for 5 years, and would pay a dismissal allowance to furloughed employees, and expenses to the workers moved to Chicago.

The Court upheld the order of the Interstate Commerce Commission and reversed a lower court decision which had held that the Commission had exceeded its authority. The Court declared that the conditions imposed by the Commission for the protection of the employees were just and reasonable, and would promote the public interest by facilitating the national policy of railroad consolidation. The Commission, Mr. Justice Stone said, was authorized by the Interstate Commerce Act to subject all leases to such terms and conditions as are just and reasonable and will promote the public interest. The Court further declared that the statute was within the Congressional power to regulate commerce among the States.

Order Disestablishing Employer-Dominated Union Upheld

A ruling of the National Labor Relations Board directing the disestablishment of a so-called company union, was upheld recently by the United States Supreme Court, in an opinion delivered by Mr. Justice Roberts.⁵

From the facts as found by the Board, it appeared that the employer had established a labor organization and more or less dominated it from 1927 until the final revision of the plan in 1937. The Board, in making the order, was of the opinion that where an organization had functioned for a period of 10 years with joint control in the employer and employees, the effects of the plan could not be eliminated and make the employees free from domination "without the complete disestablishment of the plan."

The Supreme Court pointed out that the National Labor Relations Act provides that employee organizations shall be free from any interference by the employer, and declared that in the application of the act it was immaterial in this case that the plan of the employer had not been the cause of any serious labor disputes. It was for the Congress to determine whether such a plan should be permitted to continue in force, and, in the opinion of the Court, Congress had plainly shown in the statute a negative purpose. The Board's conclusions in the case were therefore in harmony with the law.

Pennsylvania Full-Crew Law Unconstitutional

The full-crew law of Pennsylvania, enacted in 1937, has been declared unconstitutional by the State Supreme Court,⁶ as applied to the Pennsylvania Railroad Co. However, the court did not rule upon

⁵ *National Labor Relations Board v. Newport News Shipbuilding & Dry Dock Co.*, 60 Sup. Ct. 203.

⁶ *Pennsylvania Railroad Co. v. Driscoll*, 9 Atl. (2d) 621.

the constitutionality of the law as affecting other railroads. The statute required the placing of an extra brakeman on every passenger train having more than 5 cars, and on freight trains of more than 50 cars. The court declared that such a requirement deprived the railroads of their property in violation of the State constitution. The court, however, held that it did not violate the commerce clauses of the United States Constitution.

It was urged in support of the law that it was for the safety of the railroad employees, passengers, and the public in general. The court, however, declared that the alleged danger of accidents which was said to exist without such legislation was highly speculative. And finally, the court thought that the resultant effectiveness of such a law under these circumstances, "could only be out of all reasonable proportion to the cost involved."

Constitutionality of Housing Legislation

As a result of favorable decisions recently rendered by the supreme courts of California and Ohio, and the Supreme Court of Appeals of West Virginia,⁷ housing legislation has now been upheld by the highest courts of 16 States.⁸ In two States (Florida and Montana) the laws have been sustained twice.⁹ Lower courts in Maryland and New Jersey have also upheld the housing laws of these States.

In a previous article on the constitutionality of State housing legislation,¹⁰ it was pointed out that such statutes have been generally upheld on the ground that the elimination of unsafe and dilapidated houses is a legitimate exercise of the police power. Similarly, the California Supreme Court, in upholding the validity of this type of legislation, declared that the elimination of slums and the erection of safe and sanitary low-rent dwellings will do much to advance the public welfare and protect the public safety and morals.

In several of the cases recently before the courts, it has been argued that the housing acts deprived property owners of their property without due process of law. Almost universally, however, the courts have held that since the housing authorities were created for a public purpose, it necessarily followed that a grant of the right of "eminent domain" was constitutional. In upholding the validity of the New Jersey State housing statute, the State supreme court said that "there is no more reason why the Legislature of our State may not, under its power of eminent domain, take private property in order to effect slum clearances than in order to provide for roads, railroads, and swamp clearances."

⁷ *Housing Authority v. Dockweiler*, 94 Pac. (2d) 794; *State of Ohio v. Sherrill*; *Chapman v. Huntington*, 3 SE. (2d) 502.

⁸ Alabama, California, Florida, Georgia, Illinois, Indiana, Kentucky, Louisiana, Montana, New York, North Carolina, Ohio, Pennsylvania, South Carolina, Tennessee, and West Virginia.

⁹ *Lott v. City of Orlando*; *State of Montana v. City Council*, 90 Pac. (2d) 514.

¹⁰ See Monthly Labor Review, June 1939, p. 1333.

BOLIVIAN LABOR CODE, 1939

A LABOR code was adopted in Bolivia on May 24, 1939. It contains provisions on such subjects as contracts of employment, apprenticeship, wages, hours of work and rest, paid vacations, labor of women and minors, night work in bakeries, promotion and retirement, safety, medical aid, workers' housing and food supply, workmen's compensation, organization of workers and employers, conciliation and arbitration, and strikes and lockouts.¹ Special regulations are included for home workers and for domestic servants. The Minister of Labor and Social Welfare is placed in charge of the enforcement of the code.

Summary

The code establishes the 8-hour day and 48-hour week, but night work may not exceed 7 hours, and women and persons under 18 years may not work more than 40 hours per week. The labor inspectorate may grant permits for extra hours up to 2 per day. The work of persons of either sex under 14 years, except as apprentices, is prohibited, and with certain exceptions women and persons under 18 years may work only during the day.

For equal work no discrimination shall be made in pay because of sex or nationality. For overtime and for time worked on rest days double time must be paid. For night work done under the same conditions as day work the rate ranges from time and a quarter to time and a half, according to circumstances.

Annual paid vacations after 1 year's service are required, as are also annual wage bonuses payable from profits.

Compensation for accidents is due only after the employee has worked for 14 days and if his disability exceeds 6 days. The maximum compensation, that for death or total permanent disability, is 2 years' pay. The worker's position must be held for him during either occupational or nonoccupational illness, and he must receive full pay for a specified time. The employer must pay funeral expenses for persons whose death is due to accident or occupational disease.

The organization of craft, industrial, and company unions, under Government supervision, is authorized, but Government workers may not be organized into unions. In case of labor dispute, conciliation and arbitration must be tried, and only if this fails may a strike be declared, and then only on a three-fourths vote of those in active service.

The code applies to all industries, including those of the State, except agriculture, for which special regulations are to be issued.

¹ *Protección Social, Caja de Seguro y Ahorro Social, La Paz, Bolivia, March 1939, pp. 28-36.*

Other general labor laws in effect in Latin America, with date of enactment, are: Chile and Mexico, 1931; Haiti, 1934; Venezuela, 1936; and Ecuador, 1938.

For purposes of the law, "salaried employees" are construed to include all workers (such as bank employees) covered by special laws; foremen and watchmen are included with "wage earners."

In no enterprise or establishment may the number of alien workers exceed 15 percent of the total, and the admitted proportion of alien workers shall include technicians only. The number of woman workers may not exceed 45 percent of the personnel of any establishment which does not by its nature require a higher percentage of women. Only Bolivians may perform the functions of director, administrator, counselor, and representative, in State institutions, and in private institutions the activities of which are directly related to the interests of the State.

Contracts of Employment

GENERAL PROVISIONS

Persons from 18 to 21 years of age may be parties to a labor contract unless the arrangement is expressly opposed by parents or guardians; those between 14 and 18 years must have permission from parents or guardians or the labor inspector. A contract of employment is not legal unless countersigned by a labor official of the administration.

A person engaged for work at a distance from his residence is entitled to reasonable transportation costs both ways. When the work is located farther than 2 kilometers from the worker's home, the State may require the employer to provide for his transportation. A contract must continue in force at least 6 months after transfer of ownership of the enterprise.

Termination of contract.—In the case of a contract for an indefinite time, neither party may terminate it except with advance notice, as follows: For wage earners with a month of uninterrupted service, 1 week; after 6 months' service, 15 days; and after a year's service, 30 days; and for salaried employees, 30 days' notice by the employee and 90 by the employer, after 3 months of uninterrupted service. Either party failing to give due notice shall pay the salary or wage for the notice time. When either a salaried or a wage-earning employee is dismissed without his consent, in addition to giving him advance notice, the employer shall be obliged to pay him as indemnity an amount (based upon the average pay for the last 3 months) equivalent to a month of salary or wage for each year of continuous service, and for service of less than a year a proportionate amount (but disregarding the first 3 months, which shall be considered a period of probation). An employed person with more than 8 years of service shall receive the separation allowance even though he leaves voluntarily. In case the cessation of services is necessitated by bankruptcy or proved loss sustained by the company, the amount of the indemnity shall be reduced by half, but the wage claim shall take precedence as under

the civil law. Neither dismissal notice nor indemnity is due in cases of material damage intentionally done to the working equipment; disclosure of industrial secrets; negligence or carelessness affecting safety or industrial hygiene; unexcused absence for more than 3 days; total or partial failure to comply with the terms of the contract; voluntary resignation of the worker (except after 8 years' service); or theft.

A contract for a definite period can be terminated by reason of any of the above causes, and, in certain cases, by dismissal with notice and indemnity. A contract for a fixed period shall be understood to be continued if the worker keeps on at his job after the period has expired.

Advance notice of termination is not required in case of failure of conciliation and arbitration in a labor dispute.

SPECIAL TYPES OF CONTRACTS

Collective agreements.—An employer who utilizes the services of workers belonging to a labor organization shall be required to make a collective agreement with them, if they request it. Such an agreement obligates not only the contracting parties, but also those who later approve it in writing, and those who later join the contracting labor organization. The workers' association, party to an agreement, is responsible for the obligations of each of its members, and is empowered to act for them without express authorization. The association treasury guarantees its obligations, and in case of the dissolution of an association, the treasury shall continue to be accountable for the resulting responsibilities.

Apprenticeship contracts.—An apprenticeship contract must be for a fixed time, not to exceed 2 years, and must be in writing. An employer entering into such a contract must allow the apprentice the necessary time off to attend school. In case of accident or illness, the employer shall give notice to the apprentice's legal sponsors, but must furnish the first medical aid.

Labor-recruitment contracts.—For this form of contract, made through an intermediary and usually for work to be done at a considerable distance, in the future only the State may act as intermediary, and shall render its services without charge.

Hours of Work and Rest

Working time is limited to 8 hours per day and 48 hours per week; and night work (that between 8 p. m. and 6 a. m.) to 7 hours, except for periodical-publishing establishments, which are covered by special regulation. In case of women and of persons under 18 years, the working time may not exceed 40 hours of day work per week. Exception is made for supervisors, watchmen, confidential employees, irregular-time workers, and those performing work which by its

nature cannot be held down to rigid schedules of hours; such persons must have an hour of rest during the day and may not work more than 12 hours per day. In case of force majeure the workday may be lengthened as much as needed. Work done in shifts may be prolonged beyond 8 hours a day or 48 per week, provided the average over 3 weeks does not exceed 8 hours per day. The ordinary workday shall be interrupted by 1 or more periods of rest, whose total duration shall not be less than 2 hours, so arranged that there shall be not more than 5 hours without a break. At the request of the employer the labor inspectorate may grant permits for extra hours up to a maximum of 2 per day. Time which the worker spends in making good his errors shall not be considered overtime. The employer and his workers shall agree to a rest time of half a day per week, in which case the time limit may be exceeded by 1 hour on the other days, to make up a weekly total of 48 hours.

Night work in bakeries.—The labor inspectorate shall proceed gradually to the abolition of night work in bakeries and similar establishments; in the meantime this work shall be done in shifts of not more than a "normal day's work" each.

Holidays.—All the days of the year are considered workdays. The only exceptions are Sundays and civil holidays and other days declared by special legislation to be holidays; on these days no work of any kind, even including occupational instruction or beneficence, is to be done. In case of work centers distant from the capitals, occasional holidays may be compensated for by another day of rest. Workers in enterprises whose work is of public interest or of such a nature that it cannot be suspended, shall have 2 hours' rest in the middle of the holiday.

Vacations.—Annual paid vacations are to be given to salaried and wage-earning employees according to the following scale: For those who have served uninterruptedly for more than 1 year but less than 5 years in an enterprise, 1 week; for those with 5 but less than 10 years, 2 weeks; for those with more than 10 but less than 20 years, 3 weeks; and for those with more than 20 years, a month. Persons employed in enterprises which by their nature suspend work at certain times of the year shall not receive vacations if the suspension lasts not less than 15 days and if during that time they receive their normal pay.

Wages

The pay may not be less than the minimum established by the Minister of Labor. In the case of equal work, there shall be no discrimination in wages on the basis of either sex or nationality.

Wage earners must be paid at least every 15 days, and salaried employees and domestics at least once a month, payment to be made in legal tender, on a workday, and in the place of work. Workers

of both sexes, including those under 18 years and married women, shall receive their own pay and shall have free disposal of it.

For overtime and time worked on rest days, double time shall be paid, and for night work done under the same conditions as that during the day, from time and a quarter to time and a half, according to circumstances.

Employers whose balances show a profit at the end of a year shall pay their salaried and wage-earning employees, as a bonus, an amount equivalent to not less than 1 month's pay and 15 days' pay, respectively, each year, in accordance with the scheme worked out in the general labor regulations.

Provisions for Specified Classes of Workers

WORK OF WOMEN AND MINORS

The employment of persons under 14 years of age, of either sex, except for apprenticeship, is prohibited. Persons under 18 years cannot contract their services for work beyond their strength or detrimental to their development. Work of women and minors in dangerous, unhealthful, or heavy labor, and in immoral occupations is prohibited. Women and persons under 18 years are permitted to work only during the day, except in caring for the sick, in domestic service, and in such other work as shall be determined.

Maternity leave shall extend from 15 days before to 45 days after childbirth, or for a longer time in case of illness supervening; during this time women shall retain their jobs and receive 50 percent of their pay. During nursing time they shall have short periods of rest during the day, totaling not less than an hour. Enterprises which employ more than 50 women shall maintain nursing rooms, in accordance with specifications which are to be worked out.

HOME WORKERS

Home workers include those who do work for an employer otherwise than in factories. Such work shall be paid for when completed, or if by period of time, not less often than once a week. When the worker returns defective work or damages the materials which have been turned over to him, the employer may, with the approval of the labor inspector, retain up to one-fifth of the weekly pay until damages are paid.

DOMESTIC SERVICE

A contract for domestic service may be either verbal or written, but must be written and duly registered if it runs for a period of more than a year. In contracts for an indefinite time, the servant may be dismissed with 15 days' notice or with indemnity equivalent to pay

for this period, unless discharge is for theft, immorality, contagious disease, etc. Domestic servants are forbidden to leave their employment without giving 15 days' notice or loss of pay for that period, except in case of bad treatment, serious injuries, immoral attacks, or infectious or contagious disease. Servants who have served in the same house for more than a year must be given an annual vacation of 10 days with full pay. Domestic servants who do not work fixed hours should have at least 8 hours of rest each day and 6 hours off one day each week. In case the servant is ill the employer shall give first medical aid, and at his own expense move him to a hospital.

Promotion and Retirement

Vacancies shall be filled by promotion of the salaried or wage-earning employee immediately below, without distinction of sex, provided such employee meets the requirements of honesty, competency, and length of service.

Employees of banks and credit institutions who are 60 years of age and are included under the conditions governing retirement, shall be required to retire, at the responsibility of the employer.

Safety and Health

Every employer shall be required to adopt the measures necessary to protect the safety, health, and morality of his employees. The introduction, sale, and consumption of alcoholic beverages in a working place are prohibited, as is also their manufacture except in places which have this express purpose. In home work, the manufacture, repair, or adornment of clothing, and preparation or packing of articles of consumption, are strictly prohibited in houses or shops having any case of infectious or contagious disease. Workers are prohibited from sleeping in the working places, except in mining camps where the employer must provide suitable quarters for underground workers. The use of suspended scaffolding in construction is prohibited except with the permission of the municipal engineer or competent authority.

Social Insurance and Welfare

Insurance against industrial accidents and nonoccupational disability must be provided. The cost of industrial-accident insurance must be borne by the employer. In case of disability not arising from the employment, the expenses shall be borne by the State, the employer, and the insured. The insuring institution shall pay all costs, thus relieving the employer of that responsibility.

COMPENSATION FOR OCCUPATIONAL INJURIES

Every enterprise or establishment shall be obliged to pay compensation to salaried or wage-earning employees or apprentices who, through their work, suffer accidents or contract occupational diseases, whether or not there has been fault or negligence on the part of the worker. Exception is made when the accident obviously has been caused intentionally by the victim; when it is due to force majeure entirely extraneous to the work; when the worker does occasional work different from the main business of the employer; when the work is being done in the worker's own home; and when the accident is proved to have resulted from the worker's intoxication.

Occupational diseases are compensated for only if contracted during the year preceding the appearance of the disability. Compensation is paid for accidents only if the worker has been in the service of the enterprise for at least 14 days, and if his disability exceeds 6 days.

Compensation for death or for total permanent disability is 2 years' pay; for total temporary disability, pay for the time disability lasts (unless more than a year, in which case it is classified as total permanent disability and indemnified as such), for partial temporary disability, pay for its duration (unless more than 6 months, when it shall be called permanent partial disability and indemnified as such). Payments shall be made at the end of each month, except for death or total permanent disability, in which case the compensation shall be paid in a lump sum. Indemnity shall be based on the pay for the day the accident occurred or the occupational disease was declared.

In cases of accident and occupational disease, the employer shall furnish free medical and pharmaceutical attention, and hospitalization if needed. If the enterprise has its own hospital, the worker shall be cared for there; if not, the employer may choose a physician, or the worker may choose his own (but in such case the employer is responsible for only the costs fixed by the labor judge, and may appoint another physician to supervise the cure). If the injured or ill worker repeatedly refuses to be cared for at the hospital, the employer is freed from responsibility.

A medical examination for the worker is an essential prerequisite of the contract of employment. A worker not satisfied with the results of the examination is entitled to appeal and shall receive a free examination by an official physician or another designated in his stead. Endemic diseases are not considered occupational; but the employer shall be required to take the means necessary to protect and restore the health of the workers.

WELFARE MEASURES

Medical assistance.—Enterprises with more than 80 workers are required to maintain permanent medical and pharmaceutical service for their employees, without any charge or deduction. In case of occupational disease the employer must furnish such assistance for a period up to 6 months for salaried employees and up to 3 months for wage earners; during this time the employees shall hold their jobs and receive full pay, and at its conclusion have their disability classified for purposes of workmen's compensation. If the illness is not occupational, the position is to be held, with pay, for the following periods: For service of more than a year, 3 months if a salaried employee, and 30 days if a wage earner; for 6 months to a year of service, 30 and 15 days, respectively; and for less than 5 months' service, 30 and 15 days, respectively, but at the rate of only 25 to 50 percent of the pay, according to circumstances. These times shall be considered periods of actual presence for the accumulation of service. In case of death due to accident or occupational disease, the employer shall pay the costs of burial, in addition to the indemnity.

Workers' camps.—Enterprises which employ more than 200 wage earners, and are located more than 10 kilometers from the nearest town, must provide sanitary camps to house the workers and their families, keep a physician, and maintain a first-aid kit. If they employ more than 500 workers, they must maintain one or more hospitals with all the necessary services. In places where no other health service than that of the enterprise is available, such service may be used by the families of the workers.

In the worker's camps, the worker is given the right to obtain the articles he needs either from the company stores or from stores of other persons, and shall have a right to use the transportation provided by the company. In places more than 10 kilometers from a town, the employer must keep a provision shop, where sales shall be made at cost and deducted from pay, but enterprises already furnishing supplies at lower rates are excepted from this requirement.

Technical education.—Every enterprise which has more than 300 employees shall pay the expenses of an employee or the son of an employee to carry on technical studies in national or foreign educational institutions. The beneficiary shall be a Bolivian and shall be chosen by the employer or by the workers' association. The assistance shall be terminated upon conclusion of the studies or failure in examinations; in either case the employer shall then assist another person.

Associations of Workers and Employers

The right of association in craft, industrial, or company unions is recognized.

The essential qualification of a union is the defense of the collective interests that it represents. Workers' organizations particularly may make collective agreements with employers; carry out the resulting rights; represent their members in the exercise of rights granted by an agreement, when expressly requested; represent their members in labor disputes and in conciliation and arbitration proceedings; establish occupational or industrial schools, people's libraries, etc., and organize consumers' and producers' cooperatives, except those for the manufacture of articles similar to those produced by the factory in which they work.

For the formation of a craft union at least 20 workers are required, and for an industrial union not less than 50 percent of the personnel of an enterprise. Government employees or workers of any class are prohibited from organizing a union.

Each union shall be directed by a responsible committee whose members shall be native Bolivians. The labor inspectors shall attend union meetings and supervise their activities. Relations between the Government and the workers shall be carried out through the Departmental Federations of Associations (*Federaciones Departamentales de Sindicatos*) or organizations integrated in National Conferences.

Procedure in Labor Disputes

Conciliation and arbitration.—Any untimely interruption of work, without having first exhausted all means of conciliation and arbitration specified in this law, shall be deemed illegal.

A union having any disagreement with an employer shall present a statement to the proper labor inspector, signed by the members of the directive body or by half the members of the association plus 1. Within 24 hours the inspector shall notify the employer, and at the same time ask the parties to choose within 48 hours 2 representatives on each side, to constitute a board of conciliation. The members must be workers and employers of the bodies in conflict, and shall be duly authorized to sign an agreement reached. In addition to the worker representatives accredited to the conciliation board, others may attend as witnesses; the maximum number of these is to be fixed by the labor inspector so that each occupation and section of the enterprise shall be represented. The two parties to the dispute may employ attorneys and technicians and present all their legal proofs.

The conciliation board shall meet within 72 hours after receiving the claim. The labor inspector shall preside, but shall have no vote

and shall not be entitled to express an opinion. The board shall not be dissolved until an agreement is reached or until it becomes apparent that no agreement is possible.

In case conciliation breaks down in whole or in part, resort shall be had to an arbitration court. This shall be composed of a member named by each party, and presided over by the General Labor Inspector in La Paz, by the labor chief in the other departments, and by the civil authority where there are no labor authorities. Neither the workers nor the employers involved in the dispute, nor their attorneys or representatives, nor others directly concerned in the outcome, may be members of the arbitration court. If within 24 hours from notification, either party has not named its arbiter, the President may do so and may penalize the party in default. Within 48 hours from the notification of the parties, the arbitration court shall meet to organize; it shall hear the case within a maximum period of 7 days, and render decision within the 15 days immediately following. The decision of the court shall be taken by absolute majority of votes, and shall be binding on both parties, when the parties agree to it; when it affects indispensable public services; or when the President so determines.

Strikes and lock-outs.—If a conciliation board and an arbitration court have acted on a question without reaching a solution, the workers may declare a strike (provided three-fourths of the workers in active service so vote) or the employers a lock-out. Notice of the meeting in which the strike vote is to be taken shall be sent to the civil authority of the department or Province 5 days in advance, with the names and addresses of the persons responsible for calling it, and to the labor inspector in the locality. Likewise, employers who intend to close their establishments must notify the above authorities beforehand, in writing, indicating the reasons for and duration of the closure, with the names of workers thus left without employment.

Strikes are to include only peaceful suspension of work; when acts of hostility against persons or property take place, the case comes under the penal law. Suspension of work in public services is strictly prohibited, and is to be punished to the fullest extent of the law. Workers not in agreement with the decision to strike may dissociate themselves from the decisions of the unions without incurring any sort of responsibility and, under police protection, may continue their work. Reprisals by their associates are to be punished by 2 to 6 months' imprisonment.

Cost and Standards of Living

INCOME, FAMILY SIZE, AND THE ECONOMIC LEVEL OF THE FAMILY

ANY attempt to compare the actual expenditures of the families of wage earners and clerical workers studied by the Bureau of Labor Statistics in 1934-36¹ with the cost of the "American standard of living" presupposes that there is general agreement about the goods and services which go to make up that standard. As a matter of fact, there are almost as many opinions about the details which must be included in the "American standard" as there are American homes, and the general point of view about the essential details has changed considerably with changes in production techniques of the last quarter of a century. There is, however, a general agreement about certain basic goods and services essential to the health and welfare of the American family.

Post-War Standard Budgets

During the period of the World War and the economic readjustments which followed it, figures on the cost of maintaining an adequate family living were compiled by several different agencies of the Federal Government. In connection with the wage adjustments of the war period, W. F. Ogburn, then in charge of the cost-of-living section of the National War Labor Board, prepared and priced two family budgets as of June, 1918—a "minimum of subsistence" budget for a family of five costing \$1,386, and a "minimum comfort" budget costing \$1,760.²

In 1919 and 1920 the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics prepared two quantity budgets. The first was intended to represent the needs of government employees in Washington³ while the second had a wider application. It was the "minimum quantity budget

¹ This article is the second of a series, prepared by the Bureau's Cost of Living Division, dealing with the findings of a study of money disbursements of families of wage earners and clerical workers in 42 cities in 1934-36. See article in December 1939 Monthly Labor Review, entitled, "Expenditure Habits of Wage Earners and Clerical Workers." The final report will appear as B. L. S. Bull. 638.

² Bureau of Applied Economics, Inc. Bulletin No. 7: Standards of Living; A compilation of budgetary studies. Washington, 1920.

³ U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics. Tentative quantity and cost budget necessary to maintain a family of five in Washington, D. C., at a level of health and decency. Washington, 1920. This budget was based on a study of the expenditures of Government employees in Washington. The primary aim of the study was to furnish information for the use of the Joint Commission of Congress on Reclassification of Salaries. The cost of this budget in August 1919 was \$2,016 in Washington.

necessary to maintain a worker's family of five in health and decency"⁴ and was prepared in cooperation with a committee of the National Conference of Social Work and the Office of Home Economics in the Department of Agriculture.

Recent Standard Budgets

Among the concrete formulations of standards of living at specified levels which are most used at the present time are the "maintenance budget" of the Works Progress Administration, and the budgets for families in different economic groups prepared by the Heller Committee for Social Research.

The Works Progress Administration, in March 1935, found that in 59 cities of the United States the average cost of a budget for a 4-person manual worker's family at a "maintenance" level was \$1,261. When the allowance for insurance premiums (which in the recent Bureau of Labor Statistics' investigation were treated as savings) is deducted, the cost for items of current family living of the WPA budget at that date becomes \$1,215. The Works Progress Administration characterized its budget as "not so liberal as that for a 'health and decency' level which the skilled worker may hope to obtain, but it affords more than 'minimum of subsistence' living."⁵

⁴ U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics. Minimum quantity budget necessary to maintain a worker's family of five at a level of health and decency. *Monthly Labor Review*, June 1920, pp. 1-18.

The budget constituted the Bureau's "best estimates at that time of what should be included in the family budget of the workingman." It was based in part on estimated standard requirements and in part on the expenditures of wage-earning families in the United States, as shown in the investigation of 1917-19.

The food budget was obtained by averaging the actual amounts of foods used by 280 families selected from the 1917-19 survey. These families were selected because they averaged 3.35 equivalent adult males and purchased food amounting to 3,500 calories per man per day. Slight changes were made to make the budget acceptable to trained dietitians as a standard budget intended to maintain the family in health.

The clothing budget was "intended to provide a fair degree of that mental satisfaction which follows being reasonably well dressed," consistent with the *minimum* requirement for health and social decency. It was based on the clothing budgets of 850 families having three children under 15 years of age, as reported in the 1917-19 survey, modified to take account of suggestions from clothing experts and of the results of a special study of such factors as replacement.

The standard of housing included in the budget required one room per person and a complete bathroom with toilet.

The budget was never priced by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, but its cost was calculated for 10 large cities in 1922, by the Labor Bureau, Inc., a private research agency. According to the figures of that agency, the average for those cities was \$2,282. If this cost of the budget were estimated in the dollar values of the period of the Bureau of Labor Statistics' most recent study of the family expenditures of wage earners and clerical workers, it would amount to \$1,898, but that budget is not applicable to present-day conditions. The kinds of goods and services customarily consumed have changed greatly in the past two decades. The fact that no automobile, no radio, no silk stockings, and no beauty-parlor services were included in the budget suggests the changes in American consumption habits which have taken place since it was prepared.

⁵ Works Progress Administration Research Monograph XII: Inter-city Differences in Cost of Living in March 1935, 59 Cities, p. xiv.

The "maintenance budget" was designed to provide for a family consisting of a moderately active man, a moderately active woman, a boy aged 13 and a girl aged 8. The man is an unskilled manual worker who wears overalls at work. The allowance for food included in the budget is based on the adequate diet at minimum cost of the Bureau of Home Economics, using a restricted list of foods. The housing allowed is a 4- or 5-room house or apartment in a fair state of repair, with an indoor bath and toilet for the family's exclusive use. The budget includes maintenance for an inexpensive radio, a daily newspaper, and attendance at the movies once a week. It does not provide an automobile. No provision is made for saving other than life-insurance premiums, which amount to \$46 a year.

Yet another attempt to obtain quantity and cost statements of given standards of living is represented by the work of the Heller Committee for Research in Social Economics at the University of California. The average cost of its budget for a 5-person family of a skilled wage earner, as priced by the Heller Committee in San Francisco at various intervals from November 1933 to October 1936, was \$1,953. The equivalent of this San Francisco cost for an average of 59 cities throughout the United States for March 1935 has been estimated to be \$1,760.⁶ That budget was designed to meet accepted requirements of health and decency and to "accord with the spending habits of the economic group."⁷

No official estimate at a higher level than the WPA maintenance budget has been made recently. Many economists use approximately \$2,000 as the amount needed at the present time to provide an urban family of four persons with the goods and services included in what is widely accepted as the "American standard of living."⁸

The significant thing to be noted, when attempts are made to compare the cost of each of these standards with actual family expenditures, is that family size as well as total expenditure must be taken into account. Each of these quantity-cost budgets, *if equitably shared by the indicated numbers of persons*, provides for each of those persons the standard set by the budget. However, should the same quantities of goods and services or the same total expenditures be shared by a larger number of persons, it is obvious that each would fall somewhat below the standard set by the budget. Conversely, should the same total expenditures be divided among a smaller number of

⁶ To the San Francisco cost for each major category, as food, clothing, etc., was applied an adjustment factor which was the ratio of costs in San Francisco to costs in 59 cities combined, as determined by the Works Progress Administration as of March 15, 1935. Op. cit. p. 116.

⁷ Heller Committee for Research in Social Economics, *Quantity and Cost Budgets*, Berkeley, University of California, 1937.

The 1936 Heller budget for the family of a wage earner provides for five persons—a man, his wife, a boy aged 11, a girl aged 5, and a boy aged 2. The food budget included in this standard was adapted from "Adequate Food at Low Cost" by Ruth Okey and Emily H. Huntington, with adjustments to take into account customary food consumption as well as nutritional adequacy. The home is a five-room house, apartment, or flat in a "working-class neighborhood." The budget allows for the maintenance of a radio and a second-hand automobile, and a small life-insurance policy.

⁸ Perhaps the most widely known of the private estimates is that of Mordecai Ezekiel who set an income of \$2,500 as necessary at 1929 price levels to furnish an average city family of four persons with the "American standard." When this sum is converted to its equivalent dollar value in 1934-36 by the application of the Bureau's cost-of-living indexes, the corresponding money income in 1934-36 is found to be \$2,015. When the savings included in the Ezekiel budget are deducted, the cost of goods and the services it provides (adjusted to the 1934-36 dollar) would be valued at \$1,873 for a family of four.

The author defines the standard to which his dollar estimate applies as follows:

* * * decent shelter, decent clothing, and adequate food for growth and health. Under American conditions, a family can hardly be said to be sharing in abundant living unless it can also enjoy the comforts of civilization which many Americans have come to regard as necessities. Those include running water and modern plumbing, adequate heat, the telephone and electric light, newspapers, magazines, and books, a minimum of health care from doctors and dentists, an automobile, and some opportunity for travel, recreation, amusement, and higher education. For the average city family of four persons, an annual income of \$2,500 is probably the minimum on which such comfortable living can be attained (using the 1929 level of prices). In fact, such an income would probably not be high enough for most families to enjoy all the comforts listed. Rather than set our standards too high, though, we may regard such an income as being the minimum needed to enable a family to live a moderately full life under American conditions.

† Ezekiel, Mordecai. *\$2,500 a Year: From Scarcity to Abundance*. New York, Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1936, pp. 3-5.

persons than the budget estimate, each person would in fact enjoy a plane of living higher than indicated by the standard set in the budget.

Family size as well as income is of crucial importance in determining the economic plane which the family is actually able to achieve. Small family size and a high income make for a higher degree of comfort, while large families and limited incomes mean a more limited provision of goods and services for each family member, or a lower economic plane. It is also clear that two families with the same incomes, but one composed of husband, wife, and two children, and the other composed of husband, wife, and six children, live on widely separated planes of living.

Classification of Families by Economic Level

In the study of incomes and expenditures of families of wage earners and clerical workers in 1934-36, made by the Bureau of Labor Statistics,⁹ account was taken so far as possible of the complicating effect of family size as well as income upon the planes or levels of living at which the families were found.

It was desired to analyze the expenditures of the families studied in relation to their planes of living, and to make comparisons among the kinds of expenditures of families living at different economic levels. From the earlier discussion, it is apparent that classification by total income or total expenditure, without regard to the number and age of the consumers sharing the goods purchased by the family, would group together families with very different expenditure patterns. The procedure adopted met this difficulty by a plan of classification of families which, in effect, was based upon total family expenditure per equivalent adult. A cruder approximation would have used total expenditure per capita. However, to treat each member of the family as of equal importance in family spending would have been to ignore the wide differences in consumption needs and in customary expenditures for persons of different age and sex. The difference in clothing requirements of a boy aged 2 and his sister aged 18 illustrates the point.

No satisfactory single scale of equivalence was available to express the relative importance of the consumption needs of or customary expenditures for children of given ages, or of women, as a proportion of the needs or customary expenditures of a man. The relative requirements of men, women, and children are very different, in fact, for food and for clothing, and there is no assurance that the relative requirements for other items are similar to those for either food or

⁹ See *Monthly Labor Review*, December 1939: *Expenditure Habits of Wage Earners and Clerical Workers*. The present article is the second in a series based on data from that study, summarized for 42 cities combined.

clothing. Therefore, scales of relative expenditures for each of these three groups of items were computed separately,¹⁰ but for the purpose of arriving at a final figure which may be designated as family expenditure per equivalent adult. Since these scales were based upon customary expenditures by persons of different age and sex, they were called expenditure-unit scales. Hence the final basis for classification of families studied has been called annual unit expenditure, that is, annual total family expenditure per expenditure unit.

The process of classifying families according to their economic level may be indicated from the case of two families, each spending \$1,450 during the schedule year. The first family consisted of a man of 40, working as a machine operator; his wife, aged 38; two sons, aged 15 and 6; and two daughters, aged 12 and 8. In addition, the family was responsible during 6 months of the year for the total support of the wife's mother, who lived with the family during half the year. This family is regarded as consisting of $6\frac{1}{2}$ equivalent full-time persons. The second family consisted of a man of 27, also a machine operator; his wife, aged 26; a daughter, aged 4; and an infant son 1 year old. This is a 4-person family. The first family spent \$725 and the smaller family \$780 for all items other than food and clothing. The expenditure per full-time equivalent person in the first family was \$112 as against \$195 in the second family for all items other than food and clothing. Although the larger family spent 7 percent less on these items than the smaller, on a per capita basis its level was 43 percent below that of the smaller. In the case of food, the scales adopted in this study indicate that the first family consisted of the equivalent of 5.5 adult males in the family for the full year. This unit will be subsequently referred to in the present study as "food-expenditure unit." The second family consisted of 2.9 food-expenditure units. The first family spent \$580 per year for food, or the equivalent of \$105 per food-expenditure unit. The second family spent \$500, a substantially smaller proportion of its total income, but amounting to \$172 per food-expenditure unit.

¹⁰ The scale of food expenditure units was based on data secured from the Bureau of Home Economics, showing quantities of food consumed by persons of different age, sex, and physical activity, estimated partly on the basis of energy requirements and partly on the basis of the actual food consumption of families of wage earners and clerical workers. (To have secured records of the actual food consumption of individuals would have required an unjustified expense). These quantities of foods were multiplied by the average retail prices for each item, for the United States, at the dates of the investigation, and the dollar figures so obtained were used to compute a scale of food expenditure units for specified sex-age groups relative to the food expenditures of an adult male.

Clothing-expenditure relatives were computed directly from the data secured in this study on clothing expenditures for persons of different sex, age, and occupation.

There is not enough information available on the influence of age or sex on expenditures for items other than food and clothing to improve upon the assumption that equal expenditures for these "other items" are incurred for each member of the family. Each member was, therefore, considered the equivalent of an adult male in his expenditures for this third group of items.

More detailed explanation of the method of computing expenditure units may be found in Appendix G of Bureau of Labor Statistics Bulletin No. 641 or Bulletin No. 637, Vol. I.

Finally, for clothing, on the basis of the scale of customary expenditures as related to sex, age, and occupation, taking the average expenditures of adult male wage earners and lower-salaried clerical workers between the ages of 21 and 35, inclusive, as equivalent to one clothing-expenditure unit, it was found that the larger of the two families contained 4.0 clothing-expenditure units while the smaller family contained 2.6. The first family spent \$145 for clothing and the smaller family, \$170. This was an average per clothing-expenditure unit of \$36 for the first family and \$65 for the second. The economic level of the first family was measured by the sum of these three types of unit expenditure: \$105 for food, \$36 for clothing, and \$112 for all other items; total for the family, \$253 per expenditure unit. The smaller family, which it will be recalled had identical total expenditures, was not classified with the larger family but rather with other families that had an expenditure per unit of more than \$400 but less than \$500. In both cases, this means that these particular families were grouped as regards economic level with families whose incomes may have been quite different. For example, a widow with one young child, earning \$100 a month, would be grouped with the smaller of the two families, as would also a very large family with an income of more than \$3,000.

Distribution of Families by Economic Level

When the 14,469 families of wage earners and clerical workers studied by the Bureau of Labor Statistics were classified into groups by \$100 intervals in annual unit expenditure, in accordance with the procedure outlined in the foregoing section, two-fifths of them fell within the limits of expenditure of \$300 to \$500 per adult equivalent per year; as many as 15 percent spent less than \$300, while 10 percent spent \$800 or over.

One-third of all the white families studied fell within the class spending less than \$400 per unit per year, and over two-thirds were classified as having unit expenditures of less than \$600. On the other hand, two-thirds of the Negro families studied fell below \$400 and nine-tenths below \$600 unit expenditure, as shown in the following statement.

Annual unit expenditure of—	White families	Percent of— Negro families	Both races
Under \$200.....	2.3	18.1	3.0
\$200 to \$400.....	31.4	47.5	32.0
\$400 to \$600.....	36.7	25.6	36.2
\$600 and over.....	29.6	8.8	28.8
Total.....	100.0	100.0	100.0

TABLE 1.—Description of 14,469 White and Negro Families, by Economic Level, in 42 Cities Combined

[Data cover 12 months within the period 1934-36]

Item	All families	Families with total annual unit expenditure of —											
		Under \$200	\$200 to \$300	\$300 to \$400	\$400 to \$500	\$500 to \$600	\$600 to \$700	\$700 to \$800	\$800 to \$900	\$900 to \$1000	\$1000 to \$1100	\$1100 to \$1200	\$1200 and over
<i>Occupation of chief earner and family type ¹</i>													
Percent of families in survey...	100.0	3.0	12.2	19.8	20.4	15.8	11.3	7.1	4.6	2.6	1.4	0.8	1.0
Percent of families in which chief earner is—													
Clerical worker.....	27.7	7.1	15.9	22.4	28.0	32.3	33.6	36.8	37.2	38.3	37.7	40.8	47.8
Skilled wage earner.....	23.3	11.6	19.3	21.3	22.3	26.5	25.8	26.6	27.2	29.6	30.1	29.9	19.5
Semiskilled wage earner.....	35.2	44.4	43.5	39.8	36.0	31.7	29.5	28.5	29.3	25.8	27.7	25.2	28.4
Unskilled wage earner.....	13.8	36.9	21.3	16.5	13.7	9.5	11.1	8.1	6.3	6.3	4.5	4.1	4.3
Percent of families composed of—													
Man and wife.....	21.6	0	1.4	5.3	12.1	23.0	34.6	48.9	60.8	65.5	74.0	77.8	81.5
Man, wife, and 1 child ²	17.8	1.6	5.3	15.6	21.5	26.2	26.9	19.6	13.1	9.5	7.0	8.4	2.9
Man, wife, and 2 to 4 children ²	19.4	22.9	34.9	32.6	23.4	13.5	6.4	2.6	1.3	2.0	0	0	0
Man, wife, and 5 or more children ²9	9.8	3.2	1.0	.1	.1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Man, wife, and children and adults (4 to 6 persons) ²	11.6	16.5	24.2	18.0	12.6	8.0	4.7	1.9	1.3	.7	0	0	0
Man, wife, and children and adults (7 or more persons) ²	3.8	35.0	14.6	3.6	.8	.3	0	.1	0	0	0	0	0
Man, wife, and 1 adult.....	8.3	.9	2.9	6.8	9.6	11.8	10.5	11.7	8.9	5.4	8.5	3.5	3.8
Man, wife, and 2 to 4 adults.....	6.2	4.8	5.2	7.9	8.6	6.6	5.1	3.7	3.5	.7	2.0	0	.5
Man, wife, and 5 or more adults.....	.2	.9	.3	.3	.2	.1	0	0	0	0	.5	0	0
Adults (2 or 3 persons not including man and wife).....	6.3	.5	2.0	3.9	6.7	6.8	9.1	9.7	9.9	13.0	6.0	10.3	9.6
Adults (4 or more persons not including man and wife).....	1.6	1.4	2.0	1.8	2.1	1.4	1.6	1.1	1.0	2.4	1.0	0	0
Adult or adults, and children (2 or 3 persons not including man and wife).....	1.0	.7	.9	1.0	1.1	1.5	.9	.3	.2	.8	1.0	0	1.7
Adult or adults, and children (4 or more persons, not including man and wife).....	1.3	5.0	3.1	2.2	1.2	.7	.2	.4	0	0	0	0	0
Percent of families having no home maker.....	.4	.1	.2	.4	.2	.6	.4	.3	1.1	0	1.0	0	0
<i>Composition of household</i>													
Average number of persons in household.....	3.79	6.61	5.33	4.32	3.93	3.33	3.01	2.69	2.60	2.49	2.47	2.37	2.12
Percent of households with—													
Boarders and lodgers.....	7.2	7.5	6.1	7.5	7.5	7.8	6.9	7.6	8.0	6.5	7.4	4.8	6.3
Boarders only.....	2.7	1.9	2.2	2.5	2.5	3.1	3.2	3.6	2.9	3.1	3.3	3.2	1.3
Lodgers only.....	7.8	3.5	5.3	6.2	8.6	8.0	10.3	8.5	8.6	9.6	9.6	9.3	5.8
Other persons.....	5.3	2.7	3.1	4.4	5.6	5.7	5.2	8.4	5.9	8.6	11.3	10.1	9.2
Average size of economic family:													
Persons.....	3.60	6.49	5.19	4.16	3.54	3.13	2.79	2.55	2.38	2.28	2.26	2.21	2.00
Under 16 years of age.....	1.03	3.14	2.21	1.43	.95	.69	.46	.28	.18	.15	.07	.08	.05
16 years of age and over.....	2.57	3.35	2.98	2.73	2.59	2.44	2.33	2.27	2.20	2.13	2.19	2.13	1.95
Expenditure units.....	3.32	5.81	4.64	3.79	3.27	2.92	2.61	2.41	2.27	2.20	2.23	2.17	1.94
Average number of persons in household not members of economic family.....	.21	.14	.15	.20	.22	.22	.24	.27	.23	.24	.25	.19	.18

¹ "Children" are defined as persons under 16 years of age. "Adults" are persons 16 years of age and over.² Families of these types are included in the 1917-19 study, "Cost of Living in the United States," B. L. S. Bull. No. 357, 1924.

TABLE 2.—Description of 12,903 White Families, by Economic Level

[Data cover 12 months within the period 1934-36]

Item	All families	Families with total annual unit expenditure of—											
		Under \$200	\$200 to \$300	\$300 to \$400	\$400 to \$500	\$500 to \$600	\$600 to \$700	\$700 to \$800	\$800 to \$900	\$900 to \$1000	\$1000 to \$1100	\$1100 to \$1200	\$1200 and over
<i>Occupation of chief earner and family type¹</i>													
Percent of families in survey.....	100.0	2.3	11.7	19.7	20.6	16.1	11.6	7.4	4.7	2.7	1.4	0.8	1.0
Percent of families in which chief earner is—													
Clerical worker.....	28.8	8.9	17.3	23.3	28.8	33.0	34.0	37.0	37.4	38.3	37.9	41.0	47.8
Skilled wage earner.....	24.2	14.5	20.7	22.2	23.0	26.9	26.2	26.9	27.4	29.8	30.2	30.1	19.5
Semiskilled wage earner.....	35.4	47.6	44.8	40.3	36.2	31.9	29.7	28.5	29.5	25.8	27.8	25.3	28.4
Unskilled wage earner.....	11.6	29.0	17.2	14.2	12.0	8.2	10.1	7.6	5.7	6.1	4.1	3.6	4.3
Percent of families composed of—													
Man and wife.....	21.1	0	.6	3.8	10.5	21.8	33.9	48.7	60.3	65.7	73.9	78.2	81.5
Man, wife, and 1 child ²	18.0	.9	4.2	15.3	21.8	26.7	27.3	19.8	13.2	9.5	7.1	8.4	2.9
Man, wife, and 2 to 4 children ²	19.6	21.4	35.9	33.8	24.1	13.8	6.5	2.6	1.3	2.0	0	0	0
Man, wife, and 5 or more children ²8	8.9	3.4	1.0	.1	.1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Man, wife, and children and adults (4 to 6 persons) ²	11.7	16.1	25.1	18.4	12.9	8.2	4.8	1.9	1.4	.7	0	0	0
Man, wife, and children and adults (7 or more persons) ²	3.7	39.2	15.6	3.7	.8	.3	0	.1	0	0	0	0	0
Man, wife, and 1 adult.....	8.2	.7	2.1	6.6	9.4	11.7	10.6	11.7	9.0	5.3	8.6	3.0	3.8
Man, wife, and 2 to 4 adults.....	6.3	5.0	4.9	8.1	8.8	6.7	5.1	3.7	3.6	.7	1.9	0	.5
Man, wife, and 5 or more adults.....	0.2	1.1	.3	.3	.2	.1	0	0	0	0	.6	0	0
Adults (2 or 3 persons, not including man and wife).....	6.4	.3	1.9	3.9	6.8	6.9	9.1	9.7	10.0	12.9	5.9	10.4	9.6
Adults (4 or more persons, not including man and wife).....	1.7	1.7	2.2	1.9	2.2	1.4	1.6	1.1	1.0	2.4	1.0	0	0
Adult or adults, and children (2 or 3 persons, not including man and wife).....	1.0	.3	.7	1.0	1.2	1.6	.9	.3	.2	.8	1.0	0	1.7
Adult or adults, and children (4 or more persons, not including man and wife).....	1.3	4.4	3.1	2.2	1.2	.7	.2	.4	0	0	0	0	0
Percent of families having no homemaker.....	.4	.2	.2	.4	.2	.6	.4	.3	1.1	0	1.0	0	0
<i>Composition of household</i>													
Average number of persons in household.....	3.79	6.77	5.45	4.39	3.97	3.35	3.02	2.69	2.60	2.40	2.45	2.36	2.12
Percent of households with—													
Boarders and lodgers.....	7.4	8.9	6.3	7.7	7.6	7.9	7.0	7.7	8.0	6.4	7.4	4.8	6.3
Boarders only.....	2.6	1.9	2.1	2.5	2.4	3.0	3.1	3.1	2.8	3.1	3.3	2.7	1.3
Lodgers only.....	7.8	3.3	5.1	6.2	8.6	7.9	10.2	10.2	8.4	8.7	9.6	9.3	5.8
Other persons.....	5.4	2.7	3.1	4.4	5.6	5.7	5.3	8.5	5.9	8.6	11.3	10.2	9.2
Average size of economic family:													
Persons.....	3.60	6.64	5.31	4.22	3.58	3.15	2.80	2.55	2.38	2.28	2.26	2.21	2.00
Under 16 years of age.....	1.03	3.17	2.29	1.47	.97	.70	.47	.28	.18	.15	.07	.08	.05
16 years of age and over.....	2.57	3.47	3.02	2.75	2.61	2.45	2.33	2.27	2.20	2.13	2.19	2.13	1.95
Expenditure units.....	3.32	5.96	4.79	3.84	3.30	2.94	2.62	2.44	2.27	2.20	2.23	2.17	1.94
Average number of persons in household not members of economic family.....	.21	.15	.15	.20	.22	.22	.24	.27	.23	.24	.25	.19	.18

¹ "Children" are defined as persons under 16 years of age. "Adults" are persons 16 years of age and over.² Families of these types are included in the 1917-19 Study, "Cost of Living in the United States," B. L. S. Bull. No. 357, 1924.

TABLE 3.—Description of 1,566 Negro Families, by Economic Level

[Data cover 12 months within the period 1934-36]

Item	All families	Families with total annual unit expenditure of—						
		Under \$200	\$200 to \$300	\$300 to \$400	\$400 to \$500	\$500 to \$600	\$600 to \$700	\$700 and over
<i>Occupation of chief earner and family type ¹</i>								
Percent of families in survey.....	100.0	18.1	25.4	22.1	16.3	9.3	5.0	3.8
Percent of families in which chief earner is—								
Clerical worker.....	4.0	2.1	1.1	3.6	4.1	6.2	10.7	20.4
Skilled wage earner.....	4.3	3.2	5.4	3.3	2.1	10.4	5.4	1.5
Semiskilled wage earner.....	30.0	35.1	30.7	30.6	31.5	22.9	19.0	23.3
Unskilled wage earner.....	61.7	59.6	62.8	62.5	62.3	60.5	64.9	54.8
Percent of families composed of—								
Man and wife.....	32.2	0	9.1	35.0	58.7	71.3	69.2	72.2
Man, wife, and 1 child ²	13.3	3.1	17.0	22.4	14.4	5.7	8.2	3.7
Man, wife, and 2 to 4 children ²	14.1	29.5	23.5	9.7	3.3	.9	0	0
Man, wife, and 5 or more children ²	2.6	12.1	1.5	.3	0	0	0	0
Man, wife, and children and adults (4 to 6 persons) ²	9.8	17.8	16.2	9.4	2.8	1.5	0	0
Man, wife, and children and adults (7 or more persons) ²	5.2	22.6	3.7	.6	.4	0	0	0
Man, wife, and 1 adult.....	10.0	1.9	10.8	10.5	15.8	13.0	9.0	10.2
Man, wife, and 2 to 4 adults.....	4.8	4.5	8.6	3.6	1.6	3.9	3.5	4.3
Man, wife, and 5 or more adults.....	.1	0	.2	0	0	0	0	0
Adults (2 or 3 persons, not including man and wife).....	3.7	.6	3.3	4.8	4.4	3.1	7.4	8.1
Adults (4 or more persons, not including man and wife).....	.7	.3	.5	1.0	.3	0	2.7	1.5
Adult or adults, and children (2 or 3 persons, not including man and wife).....	1.1	1.4	2.5	.8	0	0	0	0
Adult or adults, and children (4 or more persons, not including man and wife).....	2.4	6.2	3.1	1.9	.3	.6	0	0
Percent of families having no homemaker.....	.2	0	.4	.4	0	0	0	.8
<i>Composition of household</i>								
Average number of persons in household.....	3.76	6.15	4.09	2.98	2.72	2.61	2.56	2.72
Percent of households with—								
Boarders and lodgers.....	3.7	3.4	4.0	4.4	3.9	3.4	1.8	4.0
Boarders only.....	5.0	1.8	3.4	3.5	5.0	8.5	8.8	26.5
Lodgers only.....	7.7	4.1	7.0	6.6	9.1	11.4	16.4	7.6
Other persons.....	3.6	2.8	3.4	3.7	4.8	3.9	0	3.7
Average size of economic family:								
Persons.....	3.59	6.05	3.95	3.00	2.52	2.36	2.22	2.31
Under 16 years of age.....	1.09	3.06	1.33	.65	.27	.11	.08	.04
16 years of age and over.....	2.50	2.99	2.62	2.35	2.25	2.25	2.14	2.27
Expenditure units.....	3.28	5.36	3.08	2.79	2.37	2.26	2.13	2.20
Average number of persons in household not members of economic family.....	.20	.12	.15	.22	.21	.26	.37	.44

¹ "Children" are defined as persons under 16 years of age. "Adults" are persons 16 years of age and over.² Families of these types are included in the 1917-19 study, "Cost of Living in the United States," B. L. S. Bull. No. 357, 1924.

Families found at low and at high economic levels by no means coincided with types found at low and high income levels.¹¹ One of the striking differences between the two types of classification was in relation to family size. When families were classified by income, average size of family was smallest at the lowest income level and largest at the highest income level. This tendency was directly related to the greater number of gainful workers associated with higher family incomes. When families were classified by economic level (by amount of annual unit expenditure), on the other hand, the largest families were found at the lowest economic levels and the average family size declined steadily as economic level increased (see table 1). The average number of gainful workers per family showed no consistent tendency either to increase or decrease from low to high economic levels. In fact, for the white and Negro families combined it ranged from 1.34 to 1.58, meaning that on the average every second or third family had a supplementary earner (see table 4). The same tendencies both as to family size and number of gainful workers were generally true of white and of Negro families when classified by economic level. The Negro families at the lowest economic levels were, however, smaller than the white, but their average number of gainful workers was larger, at all comparable economic levels, since there was greater need in the Negro group to supplement the earnings of the chief breadwinner.

Average income for both white and Negro families increased from low to high economic levels, but much less sharply than when families were classified by income. Even within the same economic levels, however, and despite the smaller number of gainful workers per family in the white group, the white families had consistently higher average incomes than did the Negro families (see tables 5 and 6).

¹¹ For distribution of families by income level, see table 2 in article previously referred to in the December 1939 *Monthly Labor Review*.

TABLE 4.—Sources of Income of 14,469 White and Negro Families, by Economic Level, in 42 Cities Combined

[Data cover 12 months within the period 1934-36]

Item	All families	Families with total annual unit expenditure of—											
		Under \$200	\$200 to \$300	\$300 to \$400	\$400 to \$500	\$500 to \$600	\$600 to \$700	\$700 to \$800	\$800 to \$900	\$900 to \$1000	\$1000 to \$1100	\$1100 to \$1200	\$1200 and over
Percent of families in survey...	100.0	3.0	12.2	19.8	20.4	15.8	11.3	7.1	4.6	2.6	1.4	0.8	1.0
Percent of families having—													
Earnings of subsidiary earners	32.4	39.4	35.8	31.8	30.9	29.6	28.3	35.6	30.8	34.9	40.1	47.9	52.4
Net earnings from boarders and lodgers	16.4	12.0	13.1	15.6	21.7	17.2	19.3	19.4	17.5	18.1	17.4	11.9	13.4
Other net rents	6.3	4.8	5.6	5.8	7.2	6.2	6.3	6.9	7.6	6.6	2.2	4.6	3.4
Interest and dividends	12.8	7.0	8.5	9.7	12.7	15.9	17.0	15.2	16.2	15.8	14.0	14.3	23.4
Pensions and insurance annuities	3.7	3.2	2.7	3.4	4.0	3.6	4.4	3.0	4.6	1.5	4.3	8.6	11.8
Gifts from persons outside economic family	10.0	9.5	10.5	10.4	9.2	10.9	9.3	8.1	9.1	9.5	5.3	10.9	17.6
Other sources of income	4.5	4.4	2.7	4.6	4.2	4.2	4.0	5.4	6.7	8.0	9.7	5.9	
Deductions from income (business losses and expenses)	5.8	3.4	4.2	4.9	5.4	6.3	7.2	7.6	6.3	6.4	7.4	8.1	7.4
Surplus (net increase in assets and/or decrease in liabilities)	59.2	62.1	61.9	62.6	63.2	59.2	58.3	54.6	52.7	48.2	24.9	37.4	23.2
Deficit (net decrease in assets and/or increase in liabilities)	37.8	32.2	34.6	33.8	34.3	38.7	39.4	42.2	44.3	48.6	62.7	58.7	75.0
Inheritance	.6	.1	.7	.4	.6	.3	.9	.5	.8	.9	2.2	.7	3.2
Average number of gainful workers per family	1.41	1.58	1.48	1.43	1.40	1.37	1.35	1.40	1.34	1.37	1.43	1.48	1.53
Average annual amount													
Total net family income	\$1524	\$967	\$1187	\$1334	\$1486	\$1596	\$1688	\$1822	\$1884	\$1981	\$2097	\$2262	\$2396
Earnings of individuals	1460	932	1143	1280	1426	1528	1616	1756	1804	1900	2009	2140	2250
Chief earner	1285	819	1020	1139	1258	1358	1438	1519	1563	1621	1679	1735	1700
Subsidiary earners	175	113	123	141	168	170	178	237	241	279	330	405	550
Males:													
16 years and over	1257	813	1007	1115	1220	1328	1405	1501	1534	1600	1624	1672	1620
Under 16 years	(1)	2	1	1	(1)	(1)	(1)	0	0	0	0	0	0
Females:													
16 years and over	203	116	135	163	206	200	211	255	270	300	385	468	630
Under 16 years	(1)	1	(1)	1	0	(1)	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Net earnings from boarders and lodgers	32	18	26	30	30	35	38	38	33	39	35	33	20
Other net rents	7	4	5	5	8	7	7	8	11	11	3	5	3
Interest and dividends	4	1	1	2	3	4	6	5	8	7	9	11	22
Pensions and insurance annuities	10	3	4	7	10	10	13	9	10	6	28	42	61
Gifts from persons outside economic family	7	5	6	7	6	8	6	6	9	8	4	11	22
Other sources of income	7	5	4	6	5	7	6	4	15	14	14	29	21
Deductions from income (business losses and expenses)	-3	-1	-2	-3	-2	-3	-4	-4	-6	-4	-5	-9	-3
Surplus per family having surplus (net increase in assets and/or decrease in liabilities)	149	93	113	128	129	149	174	188	199	199	316	202	239
Deficit per family having deficit (net decrease in assets and/or increase in liabilities)	203	85	124	151	172	195	220	261	297	330	408	404	472
Net change in assets and liabilities for all families in survey	+11	+30	+23	+29	+26	+21	+15	-8	-26	-65	-177	-161	-298
Inheritance	2	(1)	2	(1)	2	2	4	2	8	5	11	1	23

¹ Less than 50 cents.

TABLE 5.—Sources of Income of 12,903 White Families, by Economic Level

[Data cover 12 months within the period 1934-36]

Item	All families	Families with total annual unit expenditure of—											
		Under \$200	\$200 to \$300	\$300 to \$400	\$400 to \$500	\$500 to \$600	\$600 to \$700	\$700 to \$800	\$800 to \$900	\$900 to \$1000	\$1000 to \$1100	\$1100 to \$1200	\$1200 and over
Percent of families in survey...	100.0	2.3	11.7	19.7	20.6	16.1	11.6	7.4	4.7	2.7	1.4	0.8	1.0
Percent of families having—													
Earnings of subsidiary earners.....	31.9	37.9	35.3	31.5	30.7	29.1	28.0	35.0	30.6	34.9	39.9	47.6	52.4
Net earnings from boarders and lodgers.....	16.5	13.3	13.1	15.7	21.9	17.1	19.2	19.0	17.5	18.2	17.5	11.5	13.4
Other net rents.....	6.5	5.9	5.9	6.0	7.4	6.3	6.4	7.0	7.7	6.5	2.2	4.6	3.4
Interest and dividends.....	13.1	8.8	8.7	9.9	12.8	16.1	17.1	15.2	16.1	15.8	13.8	14.4	22.4
Pensions and insurance annuities.....	3.6	2.7	2.1	3.3	3.9	3.6	4.5	2.9	4.6	1.4	4.3	8.6	11.8
Gifts from persons outside economic family.....	10.2	9.6	11.0	10.6	9.4	11.0	9.4	8.0	9.2	9.6	5.3	11.0	17.6
Other sources of income.....	4.5	4.8	2.6	4.7	4.2	4.2	4.1	4.0	5.4	6.6	7.7	9.7	5.9
Deductions from income (business losses and expenses).....	5.9	4.2	4.3	5.1	5.5	6.4	7.3	7.6	6.4	6.4	7.4	8.1	7.4
Surplus (net increase in assets and/or decrease in liabilities).....	58.9	61.6	61.4	62.1	62.9	59.2	58.4	54.7	52.6	48.2	24.9	37.6	23.2
Deficit (net decrease in assets and/or increase in liabilities).....	38.1	32.5	35.0	34.2	34.6	38.7	39.2	42.1	44.3	48.6	62.6	59.0	75.0
Inheritance.....	.6	0	.7	.4	.6	.3	.9	.5	.8	.9	2.2	.7	3.2
Average number of gainful workers per family.....	1.40	1.56	1.47	1.43	1.40	1.36	1.35	1.39	1.34	1.37	1.44	1.48	1.53
Average annual amount													
Total net family income.....	\$1546	\$1021	\$1219	\$1352	\$1502	\$1606	\$1695	\$1821	\$1888	\$1983	\$2101	\$2255	\$2396
Earnings of individuals.....	1482	981	1171	1297	1441	1538	1624	1756	1808	1901	2013	2136	2250
Chief earner.....	1304	859	1045	1154	1271	1368	1446	1522	1565	1621	1683	1735	1700
Subsidiary earners.....	178	122	126	143	170	170	178	234	240	280	330	401	550
Males:													
16 years and over.....	1274	850	1031	1129	1231	1336	1414	1502	1538	1602	1628	1671	1620
Under 16 years.....	(1)	3	1	1	(1)	(1)	(1)	0	0	0	0	0	0
Females:													
16 years and over.....	207	128	139	166	210	202	210	254	270	299	385	465	650
Under 16 years.....	(1)	(1)	(1)	1	0	(1)	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Net earnings from boarders and lodgers.....	32	21	27	31	30	35	37	38	33	40	35	30	20
Other net rents.....	7	5	6	5	8	7	7	8	11	11	3	5	3
Interest and dividends.....	4	1	1	2	3	4	6	5	8	7	9	11	22
Pensions and insurance annuities.....	10	4	5	7	11	10	13	8	10	6	28	42	61
Gifts from persons outside economic family.....	7	6	7	7	6	8	6	6	9	8	4	11	22
Other sources of income.....	7	4	4	6	5	7	6	4	15	14	14	29	21
Deductions from income (business losses and expenses).....	-3	-1	-2	-3	-2	-3	-4	-4	-6	-4	-5	-9	-3
Surplus per family having surplus (net increase in assets and/or decrease in liabilities).....	152	100	117	131	130	150	175	188	200	199	316	202	239
Deficit per family having deficit (net decrease in assets and/or increase in liabilities).....	207	95	129	154	173	197	222	262	298	330	408	404	472
Net change in assets and liabilities for all families in survey.....	+11	+31	+23	+29	+26	+21	+16	-8	-27	-65	-177	-162	-298
Inheritance.....	2	(1)	2	(1)	2	2	3	2	8	5	11	1	23

¹ Less than 50 cents.

TABLE 6.—*Sources of Income of 1,566 Negro Families, by Economic Level*

[Data cover 12 months within the period 1934-36]

Item	All families	Families with total annual unit expenditure of—						
		Under \$200	\$200 to \$300	\$300 to \$400	\$400 to \$500	\$500 to \$600	\$600 to \$700	\$700 and over
Percent of families in survey.....	100.0	18.1	25.4	22.1	16.3	9.3	5.0	3.8
Percent of families having —								
Earnings of subsidiary earners.....	42.6	43.7	41.0	38.7	36.1	51.0	45.5	73.9
Net earnings from boarders and lodgers.....	15.0	8.2	12.9	13.5	15.9	20.8	26.2	35.9
Other net rents.....	2.4	1.6	2.3	2.2	2.9	2.2	3.4	3.7
Interest and dividends.....	7.0	1.8	6.1	6.7	10.1	7.3	12.3	18.3
Pensions and insurance annuities.....	5.1	4.6	9.1	6.0	5.7	3.3	1.9	7.4
Gifts from persons outside economic family.....	6.5	9.1	5.1	5.6	5.0	5.9	6.3	13.1
Other sources of income.....	4.6	3.2	4.0	3.6	5.5	5.0	11.7	9.1
Deductions from income (business losses and expenses).....	2.7	1.1	3.1	1.6	4.0	2.4	4.1	8.5
Surplus (net increase in assets and/or decrease in liabilities).....	66.0	63.6	67.2	71.5	71.4	57.2	52.4	53.0
Deficit (net decrease in assets and/or increase in liabilities).....	31.1	31.5	30.1	26.4	25.8	37.8	47.6	47.0
Inheritance.....	.2	.3	.4	.1	.2	0	0	0
Average number of gainful workers per family.....	1.53	1.63	1.54	1.46	1.40	1.59	1.47	1.84
Average annual amount								
Total net family income.....	\$1,008	\$811	\$886	\$983	\$1,027	\$1,209	\$1,327	\$1,753
Earnings of individuals.....	974	790	860	954	992	1,162	1,250	1,647
Chief earner.....	853	704	769	856	888	987	1,040	1,232
Subsidiary earners.....	121	86	91	98	104	175	210	415
Males:								
16 years and over.....	852	709	764	846	883	1,007	963	1,308
Under 16 years.....	1	(1)	1	1	5	0	0	0
Females:								
16 years and over.....	121	80	95	107	104	155	287	339
Under 16 years.....	(1)	1	(1)	(1)	0	0	0	0
Net earnings from boarders and lodgers.....	21	10	14	14	21	36	58	64
Other net rents.....	2	1	2	2	4	2	4	7
Interest and dividends.....	1	(1)	1	1	1	1	1	2
Pensions and insurance annuities.....	3	1	2	6	3	1	5	13
Gifts from persons outside economic family.....	3	4	2	3	2	3	3	18
Other sources of income.....	5	6	5	4	4	5	12	4
Deductions from income (business losses and expenses).....	-1	-1	(1)	-1	(1)	-1	-6	-2
Surplus per family having surplus (net increase in assets and/or decrease in liabilities).....	84	72	74	74	87	107	109	185
Deficit per family having deficit (net decrease in assets and/or increase in liabilities).....	98	54	69	82	109	131	145	195
Net change in assets and liabilities for all families in survey.....	+25	+29	+25	+36	+36	+12	-13	+7
Inheritance.....	(1)	(1)	1	(1)	1	0	0	0

¹ Less than 50 cents.*Calculation of Standard Budgets in Terms of Unit Expenditure*

A clearer understanding of the meaning of a distribution of families by economic level may be obtained by classifying the standard budgets discussed earlier in this article by unit-expenditure groups.

These budgets were adjusted to their average cost for the period represented by the Bureau of Labor Statistics' investigation, 1934-36, by the use of the Bureau's cost-of-living indexes. The family size

specified for each ¹² was expressed in terms of expenditure units, using the scales described earlier in this article. On this basis the total cost per expenditure unit was determined for each: \$331 for the WPA "maintenance" budget, \$413 for the Heller Committee "wage earner" budget, and \$505 for the "\$2,000 standard for a family of four." A family of the composition and expenditure represented by the WPA budget would, in the Bureau of Labor Statistics' investigation, have been classed with other families spending \$300 but less than \$400 per expenditure unit. In fact, 21 percent of the families included in that investigation, even though they were relatively favorably situated,¹³ had unit expenditures less than \$331, the unit cost of the WPA budget at the date of the survey. Furthermore, 38 percent of the families studied had unit expenditures which would place them below the level of the Heller Committee's "wage earner" budget and 56 percent spent less than the cost of the "\$2,000 standard for a family of four."

In view of the larger size of the families at the lower economic levels, 30 percent of the total number of persons covered in the investigation were found to be living below the "maintenance" standard; 49 percent below the Heller standard for wage earners; and 67 percent below the "\$2,000 standard." Considering the fact that the groups at the higher economic levels were largely mature families with relatively few children under 16, the distribution of the children included in the survey is even more striking. The proportion of children found below the WPA "maintenance" standard was 44 percent, below the standard of the Heller wage earner budget 65 percent, and below the "\$2,000 standard" 82 percent.

Patterns of Expenditure, by Economic Level

The classification by economic level is most useful in bringing out in clear relief the spending habits of families which may be considered to be on the same economic plane.

The pattern of average expenditure changes gradually from one economic level to the next. At each level within the range covered in this investigation, food expenditures took a larger share of the total than any other group of items, and expenditures for housing, including fuel, light, and refrigeration, came next. At the lower economic levels, clothing expenditures were third in importance, but at the higher levels average expenditures for the purchase and operation of automobiles exceeded average expenditure for clothing.

¹² For the \$2,000 budget for a family of four persons the same family composition as in the WPA "maintenance" budget was assumed.

¹³ Families receiving any relief during the year, or with incomes below \$500, were excluded from the study. See article in December 1939 Monthly Labor Review previously referred to.

The percentage of expenditures made for food declined much more sharply from low to high economic level, namely, from 44 to 22 percent (see table 7), than from low to high income level, for which the corresponding figures were 38 and 31 percent. This contrast indicates

TABLE 7.—Expenditures by 14,469 White and Negro Families for Groups of Items, by Economic Level, in 42 Cities Combined

[Data cover 12 months within the period 1934-36]

Item	All families	Families with total annual unit expenditure of—											
		Under \$200	\$200 to \$300	\$300 to \$400	\$400 to \$500	\$500 to \$600	\$600 to \$700	\$700 to \$800	\$800 to \$900	\$900 to \$1000	\$1000 to \$1100	\$1100 to \$1200	\$1200 and over
Percent of families in survey	100.0	3.0	12.2	19.8	20.4	15.8	11.3	7.1	4.6	2.6	1.4	0.8	1.0
Average family size:													
Persons	3.60	6.49	5.19	4.16	3.54	3.13	2.79	2.55	2.38	2.28	2.26	2.21	2.00
Expenditure units	3.32	5.81	4.64	3.79	3.27	2.92	2.61	2.41	2.27	2.20	2.23	2.17	1.94
Food expenditure units	3.12	5.53	4.24	3.55	3.05	2.72	2.44	2.29	2.16	2.08	2.07	2.04	1.90
Clothing expenditure units	2.88	4.77	3.90	3.22	2.84	2.55	2.32	2.23	2.10	2.12	2.12	1.88	2.11
Average annual current expenditure													
All items	\$1512	\$947	\$1155	\$1314	\$1479	\$1586	\$1681	\$1806	\$1911	\$2071	\$2314	\$2444	\$2759
Food	508	414	462	492	506	519	518	535	537	560	572	625	612
Clothing	160	89	119	137	153	169	180	195	205	223	245	276	320
Housing	259	156	193	226	249	279	292	311	330	342	368	375	406
Fuel, light, refrigeration	108	87	105	109	111	110	110	110	107	106	104	107	94
Other household operation	58	32	38	45	84	62	70	77	86	87	99	120	128
Furnishings and equipment	60	19	28	42	54	63	75	85	99	116	123	135	154
Automobile and motorcycle—purchase, operation and maintenance	87	14	28	48	65	87	109	144	161	221	343	317	441
Other transportation	38	25	32	34	39	41	42	45	46	44	40	53	57
Personal care	30	19	24	26	30	31	33	34	38	41	43	49	52
Medical care	59	29	36	45	56	67	71	75	84	88	103	114	117
Recreation	82	36	53	65	76	89	101	108	116	131	133	138	173
Education	7	6	6	6	7	8	9	6	8	7	9	2	14
Vocation	6	2	3	5	6	7	7	10	10	12	10	13	14
Community welfare	19	12	16	17	19	21	22	21	25	21	28	24	30
Gifts and contributions to persons outside economic family	24	4	8	12	19	25	34	40	46	57	60	86	128
Other items	7	3	4	5	5	8	8	10	13	15	34	10	19
Percentage distribution													
All items	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Food	33.5	43.7	40.0	37.4	34.2	32.7	30.8	29.6	28.1	27.1	24.7	25.6	22.2
Clothing	10.6	9.4	10.3	10.4	10.3	10.7	10.7	10.7	10.7	10.8	10.6	11.3	11.6
Housing	17.1	16.5	16.7	17.2	16.9	17.6	17.4	17.2	17.3	16.5	15.9	15.3	14.7
Fuel, light, refrigeration	7.1	9.2	9.1	8.3	7.5	6.9	6.5	6.1	5.6	5.1	4.5	4.4	3.4
Other household operation	3.8	3.4	3.3	3.4	5.7	3.9	4.2	4.3	4.5	4.2	4.3	4.9	4.6
Furnishings and equipment	4.0	2.0	2.4	3.2	3.7	4.0	4.5	4.7	5.2	5.6	5.3	5.5	5.6
Automobile and motorcycle—purchase, operation and maintenance	5.8	1.5	2.4	3.7	4.4	5.5	6.5	7.9	8.4	10.7	14.8	13.0	16.0
Other transportation	2.5	2.6	2.8	2.6	2.6	2.6	2.5	2.5	2.4	2.1	1.7	2.2	2.1
Personal care	2.0	2.0	2.1	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0	1.9	2.0	2.0	1.9	2.0	1.9
Medical care	3.9	3.1	3.1	3.4	3.8	4.2	4.2	4.2	4.4	4.2	4.5	4.7	4.2
Recreation	5.4	3.8	4.6	4.9	5.1	5.6	6.0	6.0	6.1	6.3	5.7	5.6	6.3
Education	.5	.6	.5	.5	.5	.5	.5	.3	.4	.3	.4	.1	.5
Vocation	.4	.2	.3	.4	.4	.4	.4	.6	.5	.6	.4	.5	.5
Community welfare	1.3	1.3	1.4	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.2	1.3	1.0	1.2	1.0	1.1
Gifts and contributions to persons outside economic family	1.6	.4	.7	.9	1.3	1.6	2.0	2.2	2.4	2.8	2.6	3.5	4.6
Other items	.5	.3	.3	.4	.3	.5	.5	.6	.7	.7	1.5	.4	.7

the effect, on the one hand, of the large number of mouths to be fed in families with low unit expenditures, and on the other, of the greater elasticity of demand for other items in the family budget, when a more favorable economic situation permits an expansion of expenditure. Likewise, the great strain on a limited purse which must provide for a large family is indicated by the proportion of expenditure going for housing, including fuel, light and refrigeration. This expenditure formed a smaller percentage of the total at low economic levels (25.7 percent) than at low income levels, though under either method of classification, the proportion declined at higher levels to around 17 or 18 percent.

The proportion of the total expenditure devoted to clothing, on the other hand, remained relatively more stable when families were classified by economic level. Whereas the percentage doubled from low to high income levels studied, it increased only from 9.4 for families with unit expenditures of less than \$200 to 11.6 for those spending \$1,200 or over. This relative stability of the percentage spent for clothing reflects two factors—the necessity for providing for large families at low economic levels, and the expansibility of unit clothing expenditures at the high levels.

The proportion of the total spent for transportation by public conveyance declined, since automobile travel was to a considerable extent substituted for travel by streetcar and bus at the higher economic levels. Indeed expansibility in expenditures for automobile is particularly marked when families are classified by economic level.

The percentage of total expenditure used for this purpose rose from less than 2 to 16 percent at the highest economic level studied, as contrasted with an increase to only about 7 percent at the highest income level studied. Thus the relatively small families with large expenditures were the heaviest users of cars.

The percentage of the family's total outlay spent directly for formal education (for school supplies, school tuition, and payments for special lessons), declined in general with rise in economic level, although irregularly. This change is accounted for by the fact that the families at the higher economic levels are in general those of older couples, in which there are relatively few children of school age.

There was a marked increase, on the other hand, in the proportion of total current expenditure going for household operation, furnishings and equipment, and for gifts and contributions to persons outside the economic family.

By the very nature of the classification by total unit expenditure, when two families of the same composition and the same income spend different amounts for current living, the family spending the larger amount will be classified at a higher economic level. It is, therefore,

not surprising to find that families with large deficits were found at the high economic levels, and that families at low economic levels actually achieved small surpluses. It is perhaps more surprising to find that the proportion of families spending more than current income increased

TABLE 8.—*Expenditures by 12,903 White Families for Groups of Items, by Economic Level*

[Data cover 12 months within the period 1934-36]

Item	All families	Families with total annual unit expenditure of—											
		Under \$200	\$200 to \$300	\$300 to \$400	\$400 to \$500	\$500 to \$600	\$600 to \$700	\$700 to \$800	\$800 to \$900	\$900 to \$1000	\$1000 to \$1100	\$1100 to \$1200	\$1200 and over
Percent of families in survey.....	100.0	2.3	11.7	19.7	20.6	16.1	11.6	7.4	4.7	2.7	1.4	0.8	1.0
Average family size:													
Persons.....	3.60	6.64	5.31	4.22	3.58	3.15	2.80	2.55	2.38	2.28	2.26	2.21	2.00
Expenditure units.....	3.32	5.96	4.79	3.84	3.30	2.94	2.62	2.44	2.27	2.20	2.23	2.17	1.94
Food expenditure units.....	3.12	5.71	4.51	3.60	3.08	2.74	2.45	2.29	2.16	2.08	2.07	2.04	1.90
Clothing expenditure units.....	2.88	4.93	3.98	3.36	2.86	2.56	2.33	2.23	2.10	2.12	2.12	1.87	2.11
Average annual current expenditure													
All items.....	\$1536	\$1000	\$1201	\$1331	\$1464	\$1599	\$1689	\$1806	\$1917	\$2071	\$2319	\$2442	\$2759
Food.....	515	443	493	500	512	523	521	535	538	562	572	624	612
Clothing.....	163	92	121	139	155	171	181	196	206	224	245	275	320
Housing.....	262	162	197	228	251	281	292	310	331	341	370	372	406
Fuel, light, refrigeration.....	109	92	107	110	112	110	111	110	107	106	104	107	94
Other household operation.....	59	35	40	45	54	63	70	77	86	87	100	120	128
Furnishings and equipment.....	61	18	30	42	55	64	75	85	99	115	123	136	154
Automobile and motorcycle—purchase, operation and maintenance.....	90	16	29	50	66	88	110	146	162	221	344	319	441
Other transportation.....	39	27	32	34	39	41	42	44	46	44	40	53	57
Personal care.....	30	19	24	26	30	32	34	34	38	41	43	49	52
Medical care.....	60	30	36	45	57	68	72	75	85	88	103	114	117
Recreation.....	84	38	54	66	76	89	101	108	117	131	134	138	173
Education.....	7	6	7	7	8	8	9	6	8	7	9	2	14
Vocation.....	6	2	3	5	6	7	7	10	10	12	10	13	14
Community welfare.....	19	13	16	17	19	21	22	21	25	21	28	24	30
Gifts and contributions to persons outside economic family.....	25	4	8	12	19	25	34	39	46	56	60	86	128
Other items.....	7	3	4	5	5	8	8	10	13	15	34	10	19
Percentage distribution													
All items.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Food.....	33.5	44.3	41.1	37.5	35.0	32.7	30.9	29.6	28.0	27.2	24.6	25.5	22.2
Clothing.....	10.6	9.2	10.1	10.4	10.6	10.7	10.7	10.8	10.7	10.8	10.6	11.3	11.6
Housing.....	17.1	16.2	16.4	17.1	17.1	17.5	17.3	17.1	17.3	16.5	15.9	15.2	14.7
Fuel, light, refrigeration.....	7.1	9.2	8.9	8.2	7.7	6.9	6.6	6.1	5.6	5.1	4.5	4.4	3.4
Other household operation.....	3.8	3.5	3.3	3.4	3.7	3.9	4.1	4.3	4.5	4.2	4.3	4.9	4.6
Furnishings and equipment.....	4.0	1.8	2.5	3.2	3.8	4.0	4.4	4.7	5.2	5.6	5.3	5.6	5.6
Automobile and motorcycle—purchase, operation, and maintenance.....	5.9	1.6	2.4	3.8	4.5	5.5	6.5	8.0	8.5	10.7	14.8	13.0	16.0
Other transportation.....	2.5	2.7	2.7	2.6	2.7	2.6	2.5	2.4	2.4	2.1	1.7	2.2	2.1
Personal care.....	2.0	1.9	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0	1.9	2.0	2.0	1.9	2.0	1.9
Medical care.....	3.9	3.0	3.0	3.4	3.9	4.3	4.3	4.2	4.4	4.2	4.4	4.7	4.2
Recreation.....	5.4	3.8	4.5	4.9	5.2	5.6	6.0	6.0	6.1	6.3	5.8	5.7	6.3
Education.....	.5	.6	.6	.5	.5	.5	.5	.3	.4	.3	.4	.1	.5
Vocation.....	.4	.2	.2	.4	.4	.4	.4	.6	.5	.6	.4	.5	.5
Community welfare.....	1.2	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.2	1.3	1.0	1.2	1.0	1.1
Gifts and contributions to persons outside economic family.....	1.6	.4	.7	.9	1.3	1.6	2.0	2.2	2.4	2.7	2.6	3.5	4.6
Other items.....	.5	.3	.3	.4	.3	.5	.5	.6	.7	.7	1.6	.4	.7

(see table 4, p. 125) from the lower to the higher levels. Only one-third spent more than current income among the families with unit expenditure less than \$500, whereas two-fifths or more spent above current incomes among the families with unit expenditures above \$1,000.

TABLE 9.—Expenditures by 1,566 Negro Families for Groups of Items, by Economic Level

[Data cover 12 months within the period 1934-36]

Item	All families	Families with total annual unit expenditure of—						
		Under \$200	\$200 to \$300	\$300 to \$400	\$400 to \$500	\$500 to \$600	\$600 to \$700	\$700 and over
Percent of families in survey.....	100.0	18.1	25.4	22.1	16.3	9.3	5.0	3.8
Average family size:								
Persons.....	3.59	6.05	3.95	3.00	2.52	2.36	2.22	2.31
Expenditure units.....	3.28	5.36	3.08	2.79	2.37	2.26	2.13	2.20
Food expenditure units.....	3.07	5.01	3.33	2.62	2.22	1.78	1.98	2.06
Clothing expenditure units.....	2.84	4.32	3.07	2.47	2.16	2.10	2.03	2.21
Average annual current expenditure								
All items.....	\$991	\$792	\$871	\$955	\$1036	\$1203	\$1354	\$1768
Food.....	342	328	326	332	340	362	392	469
Clothing.....	101	81	92	98	100	120	129	186
Housing.....	183	137	153	177	190	229	294	361
Fuel, light, refrigeration.....	87	73	84	90	91	101	91	95
Other household operation.....	33	24	27	32	33	42	56	74
Furnishings and equipment.....	39	22	33	35	42	52	57	125
Automobile and motorcycle—purchase, operation, and maintenance.....	23	8	13	21	30	44	58	43
Other transportation.....	35	21	28	34	43	47	53	76
Personal care.....	22	17	20	21	24	26	26	43
Medical care.....	36	27	28	35	44	42	46	65
Recreation.....	49	31	39	49	53	70	73	96
Education.....	3	5	3	2	1	3	13	4
Vocation.....	2	1	1	2	3	2	3	3
Community welfare.....	14	10	12	13	16	19	15	22
Gifts and contributions to persons outside economic family.....	18	4	10	12	21	34	42	81
Other items.....	4	3	2	2	5	10	6	25
Percentage distribution								
All items.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Food.....	34.6	41.5	37.5	34.7	32.8	30.1	29.0	26.6
Clothing.....	10.2	10.2	10.6	10.2	9.7	10.0	9.5	10.5
Housing.....	18.5	17.3	17.6	18.5	18.3	19.0	21.8	20.4
Fuel, light, refrigeration.....	8.8	9.2	9.6	9.4	8.8	8.4	6.7	5.4
Other household operation.....	3.3	3.0	3.1	3.4	3.2	3.5	4.1	4.2
Furnishings and equipment.....	3.9	2.8	3.8	3.7	4.1	4.3	4.2	7.1
Automobile and motorcycle—purchase, operation, and maintenance.....	2.3	1.0	1.5	2.2	2.9	3.7	4.3	2.4
Other transportation.....	3.5	2.7	3.2	3.6	4.2	3.9	3.9	4.3
Personal care.....	2.2	2.1	2.3	2.2	2.3	2.2	1.9	2.4
Medical care.....	3.6	3.4	3.2	3.7	4.2	3.5	3.4	3.7
Recreation.....	4.9	3.9	4.5	5.1	5.1	5.8	5.4	5.4
Education.....	.3	.6	.3	.2	.1	.2	1.0	.2
Vocation.....	.2	.1	.1	.2	.3	.2	.2	.2
Community welfare.....	1.4	1.3	1.4	1.4	1.5	1.6	1.1	1.2
Gifts and contributions to persons outside economic family.....	1.8	.5	1.1	1.3	2.0	2.8	3.1	4.6
Other items.....	.4	.4	.2	.2	.5	.8	.4	1.4

At the lowest economic levels (as data to be presented in a forthcoming bulletin will show), 60 percent or more of the funds drawn on in addition to income took the form of borrowing or other com-

mitments for future payments. At the higher levels, however, families not meeting their current expenses from income were able to depend more and more on past savings. Among families with unit expenditures of \$500 or more, depletion of reserves of one sort or another exceeded increases in obligations.

Average increases in installment-purchase obligations amounted to \$12 per family at the lowest economic level studied, and to \$154 at the highest level. Increases in installment obligations due on purchases of automobiles represented from 14 to 21 percent of the total decrease in reserves plus increase in obligations incurred at the three highest spending levels; increases in such obligations on other goods from 6 to 9 percent.

The years covered by this survey were characterized in general by an increase in the use of installment credit and by a relaxation in the terms of installment credit. They followed a period of intense strain and very general unemployment, and it seems clear that among the employed group covered by this survey, many families with relatively few dependents and relatively large incomes were using their credit standing to make purchases which had been postponed in the years just previous.

The Negro families studied maintained surpluses at higher economic levels more consistently than did white families. This was in part a result of the almost universal payment by Negro families of insurance premiums (which in the present investigation were treated as savings), and in part a result of their smaller increases in installment-purchase obligations.

Unit Expenditures by Economic Level

Since the classification of families by economic level has been made on the basis of expenditure per unit, its meaning is brought out even more clearly when one compares unit expenditures for component items of the family budget. This is done in table 10 for the 15 percent of families at the lowest and at the highest economic levels studied. The lowest 15 percent includes families spending less than \$300 per unit per year for all items; the highest 15 percent includes families with unit expenditure of \$731 or more.

The most striking fact in table 10 is that whereas total family expenditures were not even doubled from the lowest to the highest 15 percent of the families, the increase in total unit expenditure was more than threefold. Food expenditures increased only 22 percent per family but more than doubled per food expenditure unit. The clothing expenditures of the highest group of families were less than twice those of the lowest group but were more than three and one-half times as great per clothing expenditure unit. These figures indicate an

increase in level of living for individual family members much more than proportionate to the increase in total family expenditure. Most striking among the other figures shown in table 10 is that the automobile expenditure and the gifts and contributions of the highest 15 percent of the families were more than 20 times as great per unit as those of the lowest 15 percent; expenditures for furnishings and equipment were 9 times as great; and expenses for medical care and for recreation approximately 6 times as great.

TABLE 10.—*Expenditures by White and Negro Families at Selected Economic Levels*

[Data cover 12 months within the period 1934-36]

Item	Average per family		Average per unit ¹		Expenditures at high economic levels relative to those at low levels (expenditure at the low levels=100)	
	15 percent of families at lowest economic levels	15 percent of families at highest economic levels	15 percent of families at lowest economic levels	15 percent of families at highest economic levels	Average per family	Average per unit
Number of persons.....	5.45	2.36	-----	-----	-----	-----
Number of food expenditure units.....	4.50	2.26	-----	-----	-----	-----
Number of clothing expenditure units.....	4.07	2.15	-----	-----	-----	-----
Number of expenditure units.....	4.87	2.13	-----	-----	-----	-----
Average Annual Amount						
Total expenditures.....	\$1, 112	\$2, 026	² \$228	² \$951	182	417
Food.....	454	553	³ 101	³ 245	122	243
Clothing.....	114	220	⁴ 28	⁴ 102	193	364
Housing (including fuel, light, refrigeration).....	286	444	52	188	155	362
Other household operation.....	37	89	7	38	241	543
Furnishings and equipment.....	27	106	5	45	393	900
Automobile and motorcycle—purchase, operation and maintenance.....	24	209	4	89	871	2, 225
Other transportation.....	30	46	6	19	153	317
Personal care.....	23	39	4	17	170	425
Medical care.....	34	87	6	37	256	617
Recreation.....	50	123	9	52	246	578
Education.....	6	7	1	3	117	300
Vocation.....	3	11	1	5	367	500
Community welfare.....	14	23	3	10	164	333
Gifts and contributions to persons outside economic family.....	7	55	1	23	786	2, 300
Other items.....	3	14	1	6	467	600

¹ All averages per unit except total expenditure, ² food expenditure, ³ and clothing expenditure, ⁴ are averages per person.

² Average per expenditure unit

³ Average per food expenditure unit.

⁴ Average per clothing expenditure unit.

It is when family expenditures are studied in this light that the real contrasts between the consumption of families at different economic planes become apparent.

CHANGES IN COST OF LIVING IN THE UNITED STATES, SEPTEMBER 15, 1939

THE cost of living for families of wage earners and lower-salaried workers in the 32 large cities of the United States surveyed by the Bureau of Labor Statistics was 1.2 percent higher on September 15, 1939, than on June 15.

The increase was due largely to the rise in the cost of food that occurred between the middle of August and the middle of September, although the cost of all groups except rent was above the June level in September.

The Bureau of Labor Statistics index of the cost of all goods purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried workers, based on costs in 1923-25 as 100, was 82.7 on September 15, 1939, as compared with 81.7 on June 15. The increase in costs between June and September almost exactly compensated for the decline which occurred between December 1938 and June 1939. Costs on September 15 stood 17 percent below the peak point in December 1929, and 11 percent above the low point in June 1933.

Living costs increased in 30 of the 32 cities during the 3-month period ended September 15. New York is the only city in which an increase greater than 2 percent was reported (2.5). In Detroit and Minneapolis slight declines were recorded.

The cost of food, which constitutes the most important expenditure in the wage earners' budget, increased 3.6 percent over the quarter, with the changes ranging from a decrease of 1.1 percent in Minneapolis to a 7.5-percent rise in New York. Food costs were higher in 30 of the 32 cities for which indexes of total living costs are computed. In Minneapolis and Denver they declined 5.7 and 5.2 percent between June 15 and August 15, but the rise which occurred early in September was not great enough in these cities to bring total food costs back to the June level. Between the middle of June and the middle of July average food costs in cities reporting food prices to the Bureau increased slightly, but dropped 1.8 percent during the following month. Between August 15 and the middle of September the retail cost of food rose 5.2 percent. This advance was widespread. Costs in September in each of these cities stood at a level higher than in August, with lard, sugar, navy beans, and eggs leading all other items in the rise.

Clothing costs, on the average, advanced less than one-half of 1 percent. The only city in which clothing costs changed as much as 1 percent was Detroit, where a 1.6 percent decline in clothing costs was reported.

Average rental costs remained practically unchanged over the quarter, reflecting an average of small fluctuations in the 32 cities.

Coal prices showed a slight rise at this season with the result that fuel and light costs averaged 0.8 percent higher at the end of the quarter, with 23 of the 32 cities sharing in the increase.

Items included in the groups of housefurnishing goods and miscellaneous items were respectively 0.3 percent and 0.2 percent higher at the end of the quarter. The cost of the housefurnishing-goods group rose in 27 of the 32 cities with the largest increase, 1.2 percent, reported in New York. No city reported a change of more than 1 percent in the cost of the goods and services included in the miscellaneous index.

Percentage changes in the cost of goods purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried clerical workers from June 15, 1939, to September 15, 1939, are shown in table 1 for the 32 large cities of the United States, separately, and for these cities combined.

TABLE 1.—Percentage Change from June 15, 1939, to Sept. 15, 1939, in the Cost of Goods Purchased by Wage Earners and Lower-Salaried Workers

City	All items	Food	Clothing	Rent	Fuel and light	House-furnishing goods	Miscellaneous
Average: 32 large cities.....	+1.2	+3.6	(¹)	(¹)	+0.8	+0.3	+0.2
New England:							
Boston.....	+1.5	+3.7	-0.2	(²)	+2.1	(²)	+5
Portland, Maine.....	+1.5	+3.3	-3	+0.5	+2.6	+9	+6
Middle Atlantic:							
Buffalo.....	+6	+1.5	-2	-1	+1	-9	+1.0
New York.....	+2.5	+7.5	(²)	+1	+1	+1.2	+5
Philadelphia.....	+8	+2.5	+2	+1	+1.2	+5	-4
Pittsburgh.....	+8	+2.6	(²)	(²)	+3	+4	+1
Scranton.....	+1.3	+4.4	-1	-6	+8	+2	(³)
East North Central:							
Chicago.....	+5	+1.6	-3	-2	+1.1	+1.0	(²)
Cincinnati.....	+1.2	+3.2	+5	-2	+2.5	+4	(¹)
Cleveland.....	+1	+8	+2	+1	+3	-4	-5
Detroit.....	-3	+1.2	-1.6	-3	(²)	-1.1	-8
Indianapolis.....	+4	+1.1	+2	+3	+7	-6	-1
West North Central:							
Kansas City.....	+1.4	+4.2	+2	-3	+1.4	+4	+1
Minneapolis.....	-3	-1.1	+1	+1	(²)	+1	+1
St. Louis.....	+1.8	+4.7	+3	-1	+4.1	+4	+5
South Atlantic:							
Atlanta.....	+1.2	+3.3	(²)	-6	+5.1	+2	(³)
Baltimore.....	+1.0	+2.5	(²)	(²)	+1.3	+8	+1
Jacksonville.....	+1.6	+6.4	+3	-3	+1	+2	-1
Norfolk.....	+1.5	+5.5	+1	(²)	+1.4	+1.1	+2
Richmond.....	+1.6	+5.3	-1	+1	+1.9	-1.1	-1
Savannah.....	+1.6	+6.9	(²)	(²)	-2.0	+8	(²)
Washington, D. C.....	+1.7	+5.4	+3	-2	-4	+3	-1
East South Central:							
Birmingham.....	+1.2	+4.6	-3	+1	+5	+2	(³)
Memphis.....	+1.8	+7.2	(²)	-1	+9	+8	-1
Mobile.....	+9	+2.7	-1	(²)	+1.8	+3	+1
West South Central:							
Houston.....	+1.8	+6.2	+2	-3	+3.4	+3	-2
New Orleans.....	+1.8	+5.5	-4	+2	-7	+4	(²)
Mountain: Denver.....	(²)	-6	+2	+1	-1.0	+3	+7
Pacific:							
Los Angeles.....	+4	+2.2	+3	-2	-3.6	+1	-1
Portland, Oreg.....	+8	+2.7	(²)	+2	+1.0	+3	(²)
San Francisco.....	+1.7	+6.0	+2	+1	-2.0	+4	(²)
Seattle.....	+9	+4.0	(²)	-2	-1.5	+5	(²)

¹ Includes 51 cities.² Increase less than 0.05 percent.³ Decrease less than 0.05 percent.⁴ No change.

Percentage changes in the cost of goods purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried workers from a peak point in June 1920, from December 1929, from the low point June 1933, and from September 15, 1938, to September 15, 1939, in 32 cities, are presented in table 2.

TABLE 2.—Percentage Change in Cost of All Goods Purchased by Wage Earners and Lower-Salaried Workers for Specified Periods

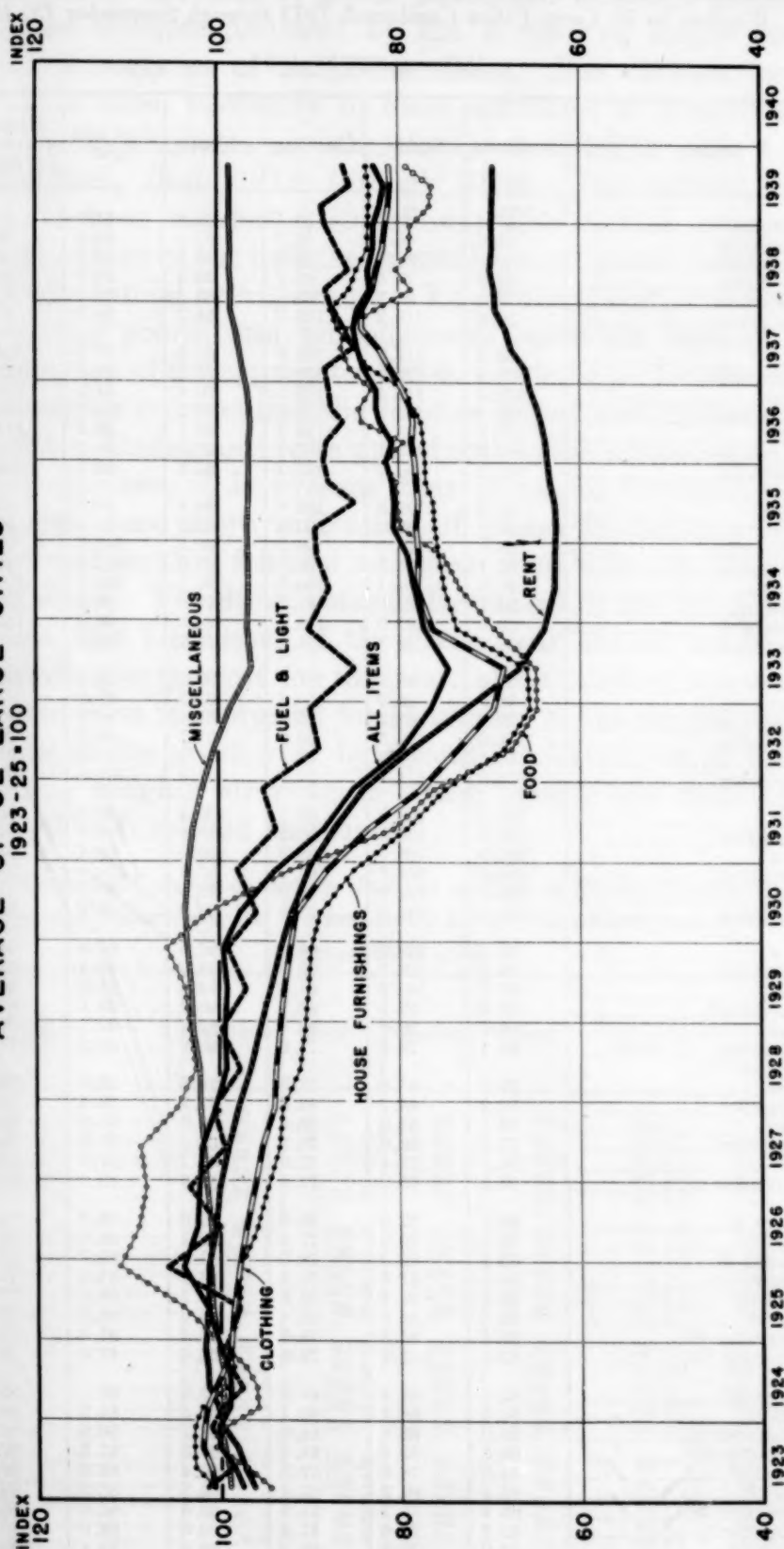
City	Percentage change from—			
	June 1920 to Sept. 15, 1939	December 1929 to Sept. 15, 1939	June 1933 to Sept. 15, 1939	Sept. 15, 1938 to Sept. 15, 1939
Average: 32 large cities.....	-31.8	-17.0	+11.1	(1)
New England:				
Boston.....	-32.2	-18.4	+7.9	-0.3
Portland, Maine.....	-32.4	-15.3	+8.1	+5
Middle Atlantic:				
Buffalo.....	-30.5	-17.2	+9.9	+7
New York.....	-28.1	-16.2	+8.9	+9
Philadelphia.....	-31.1	-18.0	+9.3	-7
Pittsburgh.....	-32.2	-18.5	+11.5	-1.2
Scranton.....	-33.0	-19.8	+7.5	+1.0
East North Central:				
Chicago.....	-32.8	-21.1	+11.2	-1.2
Cincinnati.....	-32.0	-18.1	+9.2	-1.0
Cleveland.....	-28.8	-12.2	+14.2	(1)
Detroit.....	-38.0	-18.8	+19.9	-1.6
Indianapolis.....	-36.1	-17.3	+11.6	-1
West North Central:				
Kansas City.....	-36.7	-14.3	+9.5	+1.1
Minneapolis.....	-31.4	-15.1	+12.6	+2
St. Louis.....	-32.8	-17.5	+11.5	+6
South Atlantic:				
Atlanta.....	-39.0	-18.0	+12.0	-2
Baltimore.....	-28.5	-14.1	+11.1	-3
Jacksonville.....	-35.5	-16.7	+12.4	+2
Norfolk.....	-35.1	-15.6	+11.9	+5
Richmond.....	-33.7	-15.4	+10.3	-1
Savannah.....	-37.1	-17.6	+9.1	+8
Washington, D. C.....	-28.6	-11.6	+11.9	+5
East South Central:				
Birmingham.....	-39.5	-20.3	+14.1	-7
Memphis.....	-33.9	-15.5	+11.6	+2
Mobile.....	-34.9	-18.3	+10.8	+4
West South Central:				
Houston.....	-32.9	-16.0	+15.7	+1.0
New Orleans.....	-27.7	-14.3	+12.5	+1.3
Mountain: Denver.....	-34.3	-14.8	+10.5	-6
Pacific:				
Los Angeles.....	-29.7	-17.0	+11.8	-3
Portland, Oreg.....	-34.5	-12.8	+14.9	+7
San Francisco.....	-25.4	-12.0	+12.2	-1
Seattle.....	-30.1	-11.8	+12.4	+1.2

¹ Decrease of less than 0.05 percent.*Indexes on 1923-25 Base*

Indexes of the average cost of all goods purchased by families of wage earners and lower-salaried workers are constructed for each of the 32 cities surveyed and for these cities combined, using an average of the years 1923-25 as the base.¹ These indexes, from 1913 through September 15, 1939, for the 32 cities combined, are shown in table 3. The chart on page 139 presents these data in graphic form.

¹ Indexes of food costs based on costs in 1923-25 as 100 are computed monthly for 51 cities (including the 32 cities in this report). Percentage changes from month to month are calculated for 7 additional cities. These data will be sent upon request.

COST OF GOODS PURCHASED BY WAGE EARNERS AND LOWER-SALARIED WORKERS AVERAGE OF 32 LARGE CITIES 1923-25=100



UNITED STATES BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

TABLE 3.—Indexes of Cost of Goods Purchased by Wage Earners and Lower-Salaried Workers in 32 Large Cities Combined, 1913 through September 15, 1939

[Average 1923-25=100]

Date	All items	Food ¹	Clothing	Rent	Fuel and light	House-furnish-ing goods	Miscel-laneous
1913—Average.....	57.4	63.1	55.7	61.4	53.9	47.7	50.1
1914—December.....	58.9	66.3	56.3	61.4	54.5	49.6	51.6
1915—December.....	60.1	66.3	58.3	62.3	54.5	52.8	53.9
1916—December.....	66.9	79.5	66.9	62.8	58.5	61.0	56.8
1917—December.....	79.4	99.1	83.1	61.5	66.9	71.8	70.4
1918—December.....	95.8	118.2	118.9	64.7	78.7	97.8	81.9
1919—June.....	98.2	117.3	128.8	67.3	77.8	104.0	84.3
December.....	109.8	126.4	159.5	73.1	82.6	123.0	92.9
1920—June.....	121.2	146.1	168.6	79.4	91.3	137.0	99.2
December.....	112.2	115.7	151.0	87.5	103.7	132.8	103.2
1921—March.....	102.8	95.8	129.8	92.7	98.4	114.3	103.2
September.....	101.7	102.1	112.2	93.3	98.2	103.2	102.5
December.....	100.3	99.7	107.2	94.8	99.1	100.4	102.0
1922—March.....	96.8	93.5	102.4	94.6	96.3	95.0	100.4
June.....	97.0	95.6	100.4	95.0	95.9	93.2	99.5
September.....	96.4	93.3	99.3	95.2	100.9	93.4	99.2
December.....	97.7	96.7	99.4	95.8	102.2	96.3	98.9
1923—March.....	97.6	94.6	100.8	96.3	101.5	100.7	99.0
June.....	98.7	97.7	101.1	97.3	98.7	102.8	99.1
September.....	99.9	100.0	101.9	98.2	99.8	102.9	99.6
December.....	100.2	99.5	101.8	99.7	101.1	102.9	100.0
1924—March.....	99.0	95.9	101.5	100.2	99.9	102.1	99.7
June.....	98.9	95.9	100.6	101.3	97.6	99.4	99.8
September.....	99.2	97.3	99.5	101.4	98.9	98.6	99.8
December.....	100.0	99.5	98.9	101.7	99.5	99.1	100.2
1925—June.....	101.4	104.2	98.5	101.4	97.9	97.9	100.8
December.....	104.0	111.1	97.9	101.3	105.8	97.8	101.1
1926—June.....	102.5	108.9	97.1	100.4	100.0	95.8	101.0
December.....	102.3	108.1	96.2	100.0	103.4	94.7	101.4
1927—June.....	101.9	108.7	95.3	99.0	99.4	93.4	101.7
December.....	100.4	104.7	94.0	97.9	100.6	93.0	102.1
1928—June.....	99.2	102.5	93.8	96.5	97.7	91.1	102.1
December.....	99.4	103.2	93.3	95.5	99.7	90.5	102.8
1929—June.....	99.1	103.7	92.8	94.3	97.0	90.2	103.0
December.....	99.6	105.7	92.2	93.3	99.1	89.9	103.4
1930—June.....	97.7	101.2	91.5	92.0	95.9	88.8	103.7
December.....	93.8	92.1	88.1	90.1	98.1	85.1	103.4
1931—June.....	88.3	80.6	83.4	87.3	93.7	79.3	102.8
December.....	85.1	76.2	77.6	83.9	95.3	74.9	101.8
1932—June.....	79.7	67.6	73.5	78.5	88.8	68.4	100.4
December.....	76.6	64.7	69.5	72.7	89.8	65.6	98.8
1933—June.....	74.5	64.9	68.4	66.8	84.9	65.8	96.4
December.....	77.2	69.6	76.2	63.9	90.0	73.5	96.8
1934—June.....	78.4	73.4	77.9	62.7	87.7	75.0	96.6
November 15.....	79.1	75.3	77.8	62.7	89.0	75.5	96.7
1935—March 15.....	80.6	79.8	78.0	62.6	89.3	76.0	96.8
July 15.....	80.4	80.2	77.8	62.7	84.9	76.2	96.7
October 15.....	80.7	80.2	78.0	63.3	87.7	77.0	96.6
1936—January 15.....	81.3	81.6	78.3	63.5	88.3	77.0	96.6
April 15.....	80.6	79.4	78.6	63.7	88.0	77.3	96.5
July 15.....	82.0	84.0	78.4	64.2	86.1	77.5	96.4
September 15.....	82.4	84.3	78.6	64.6	87.4	78.2	96.5
December 15.....	82.4	82.9	79.6	65.4	87.8	79.2	96.8
1937—March 15.....	83.8	85.4	80.9	65.9	88.1	83.1	97.3
June 15.....	84.5	86.3	82.1	67.5	84.9	85.1	97.7
September 15.....	85.0	85.8	84.0	68.1	86.0	86.7	98.1
December 15.....	84.5	82.6	84.0	69.3	87.3	87.5	98.6
1938—March 15.....	83.0	78.6	82.8	69.4	88.0	85.4	98.5
June 15.....	83.3	80.2	82.3	69.7	85.5	84.6	98.7
September 15.....	82.7	78.7	81.7	69.6	86.8	83.4	98.6
December 15.....	82.7	78.6	81.5	69.6	88.0	83.3	98.6
1939—March 15.....	82.0	76.4	81.1	69.6	88.4	83.2	98.5
June 15.....	81.7	76.3	80.9	69.5	85.4	83.2	98.5
September 15.....	82.7	79.0	81.0	69.5	86.1	83.5	98.7

¹ Covers 51 cities since June 1920.

The indexes of the cost of goods purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried workers prepared by the Bureau of Labor Statistics show relative costs as of particular dates. For various purposes, however, it is often necessary to have estimates of annual average indexes. These estimates are, therefore, presented in table 4, for 32 cities combined, from 1913 through 1938. The annual average indexes have been computed as follows: The annual average food index is an average of the indexes (monthly, most years) falling within each year; the annual average indexes for clothing, rent, fuel and light, housefurnishing goods, and miscellaneous items are indexes of the weighted average of the aggregates for each pricing period affecting the year, the weights representing the relative importance of each pricing period. When these goods were priced only twice a year, in June and again in December, it is evident that prices in December of the previous year were more indicative of prices in the next month, January, even though it fell in a new year, than were the prices of the succeeding June. Therefore, costs in December of the preceding year and in June and December of the given year are all considered in arriving at an average cost for the year. The relative importance of each of these costs is expressed for December of the previous year by $2\frac{1}{2}$, for June of the given year by 6, and for December of the given year by $3\frac{1}{2}$. Weights for years in which pricing was done at other intervals will be furnished on request.

TABLE 4.—Estimated¹ Annual Average Indexes of Cost of Goods Purchased by Wage Earners and Lower-Salaried Workers in 32 Large Cities Combined, 1913-38

[Average 1923-25=100]

Year	All items	Food ²	Clothing	Rent	Fuel and light	House-furnish-ing goods	Miscel-laneous
1913.....	57.4	63.1	55.7	61.4	53.9	47.7	50.1
1914.....	58.2	64.6	56.1	61.4	54.3	49.0	51.2
1915.....	58.8	63.9	57.4	61.9	54.5	51.3	52.8
1916.....	63.2	71.7	62.9	62.6	56.6	57.2	55.5
1917.....	74.4	92.4	75.6	62.1	63.0	66.9	64.2
1918.....	87.2	106.2	102.5	63.2	73.3	85.9	76.7
1919.....	101.1	120.2	135.7	68.4	79.4	108.2	86.3
1920.....	116.2	133.1	161.6	80.4	93.1	132.8	99.1
1921.....	103.6	101.6	124.4	92.4	99.3	111.8	102.8
1922.....	97.2	95.0	101.0	95.1	98.6	94.8	99.7
1923.....	99.0	97.9	101.2	97.5	100.3	101.8	99.3
1924.....	99.2	97.0	100.4	101.0	99.1	100.1	99.9
1925.....	101.8	105.0	98.4	101.5	100.6	98.1	100.8
1926.....	102.6	108.5	97.0	100.5	102.2	95.9	101.1
1927.....	100.6	104.5	95.1	98.9	100.6	93.6	101.7
1928.....	99.5	103.3	93.7	96.5	98.9	91.3	102.3
1929.....	99.5	104.7	92.7	94.3	98.2	90.2	103.1
1930.....	97.0	99.6	90.7	91.7	97.2	87.9	103.5
1931.....	88.6	82.0	82.7	86.9	95.1	79.2	102.7
1932.....	79.8	68.3	73.2	78.0	90.4	68.9	100.2
1933.....	75.8	66.4	70.9	67.2	87.4	68.0	97.0
1934.....	78.6	74.1	77.5	62.9	88.6	74.9	96.7
1935.....	80.7	80.5	77.9	62.9	87.5	76.4	96.7
1936.....	81.6	82.1	78.7	64.2	87.5	77.8	96.5
1937.....	84.3	85.1	82.4	67.4	86.6	84.9	97.8
1938.....	83.0	78.9	82.3	69.5	87.0	84.5	98.6

¹ For explanation of method used, see above.

² Covers 51 cities since June 1920.

Table 5 presents September 15, 1939, indexes of living costs for families of wage earners and lower-salaried workers based on average costs in the years 1923-25 as 100, for each of the 32 cities, by groups of items.

TABLE 5.—*Indexes of Cost of Goods Purchased by Wage Earners and Lower-Salaried Workers, by Groups of Items, Sept. 15, 1939*

[Average 1923-25=100]

City	All items	Food	Clothing	Rent	Fuel and light	House-furnishing goods	Miscellaneous
Average: 32 large cities.....	82.7	¹ 79.0	81.0	69.5	86.1	83.5	98.7
New England:							
Boston.....	82.7	75.9	85.0	75.3	86.2	81.5	98.6
Portland, Maine.....	85.0	78.8	82.1	76.7	81.2	90.6	103.6
Middle Atlantic:							
Buffalo.....	84.2	78.7	80.1	73.3	95.8	89.5	98.8
New York.....	85.0	83.1	78.6	77.9	84.4	78.3	100.1
Philadelphia.....	81.9	80.3	76.2	69.4	79.6	81.8	97.2
Pittsburgh.....	81.6	76.0	80.7	70.5	100.9	83.0	96.0
Scranton.....	81.5	76.7	82.7	71.3	73.0	85.7	96.4
East North Central:							
Chicago.....	78.7	78.4	74.0	60.3	90.1	75.0	99.8
Cincinnati.....	85.5	77.9	81.0	76.4	95.8	93.5	101.2
Cleveland.....	85.8	79.0	84.2	69.1	112.6	79.3	103.6
Detroit.....	78.7	75.0	80.7	66.2	77.5	81.8	94.5
Indianapolis.....	81.4	78.3	79.2	66.3	83.1	88.5	93.4
West North Central:							
Kansas City.....	82.7	81.3	80.9	61.3	81.0	79.4	101.8
Minneapolis.....	84.1	83.5	79.1	72.3	88.6	88.5	96.2
St. Louis.....	83.8	84.6	82.3	58.1	87.1	90.4	102.7
South Atlantic:							
Atlanta.....	79.9	73.1	83.3	64.8	71.6	89.0	94.9
Baltimore.....	86.3	84.0	81.8	76.1	80.5	83.7	103.8
Jacksonville.....	80.1	79.1	80.4	59.3	87.6	81.4	90.2
Norfolk.....	84.9	77.8	87.5	64.8	80.6	86.1	104.2
Richmond.....	83.4	72.4	89.4	73.4	82.5	89.5	99.1
Savannah.....	81.5	80.8	83.6	64.2	81.0	87.7	91.4
Washington, D. C.....	87.4	82.6	82.9	86.5	81.8	90.0	99.8
East South Central:							
Birmingham.....	76.7	68.0	86.4	59.5	73.8	81.5	93.9
Memphis.....	81.7	76.7	87.0	62.4	86.1	94.2	95.2
Mobile.....	83.0	76.2	88.4	67.4	² 70.2	89.0	98.0
West South Central:							
Houston.....	82.8	79.7	76.8	74.3	75.9	92.6	94.4
New Orleans.....	84.8	86.1	80.2	73.8	72.9	93.8	93.1
Mountain: Denver.....	82.3	81.8	77.9	64.5	74.5	89.0	² 98.9
Pacific:							
Los Angeles.....	78.1	71.5	86.0	55.0	78.6	82.9	94.6
Portland, Oreg.....	83.5	81.2	81.4	61.8	83.5	85.2	100.1
San Francisco.....	88.2	82.9	92.2	74.0	77.3	89.1	105.1
Seattle.....	87.8	81.8	89.0	70.7	94.4	90.6	101.8

¹ Includes 51 cities.

² Corrected indexes for June 15, on the 1923-25 base: Mobile, "Fuel and light" from 69.4 to 68.9; Denver, "Miscellaneous" from 98.8 to 98.2; "All items" from 82.4 to 82.3.

Table 6 presents indexes of the cost of all goods purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried workers in each of the 32 cities, for each date from June 1926 through September 15, 1939, on the 1923-25 base. It is planned to publish these indexes for each group of items in each December report, and to publish only the indexes of the cost of all goods in the March, June, and September reports. Mimeographed tables of indexes for individual cities are available upon request.

TABLE 6.—Indexes of Cost of All Goods Purchased by Wage Earners and Lower-Salaried Workers in Each of 32 Large Cities, June 1926 Through Sept. 15, 1939

[Average 1923-25=100]

Date	New England		Middle Atlantic					East North Central
	Boston	Portland, Maine	Buffalo	New York	Philadelphia	Pittsburgh	Scran-ton	Chicago
1926—June.....	102.5	102.0	104.6	102.4	104.8	103.6	104.1	102.9
December.....	103.5	101.8	103.7	102.7	104.5	103.2	103.8	102.9
1927—June.....	101.9	101.7	103.3	101.8	103.3	103.0	103.5	102.6
December.....	102.2	100.4	101.7	102.5	102.2	101.3	102.4	100.2
1928—June.....	99.5	98.9	101.5	100.3	101.0	99.9	101.7	99.0
December.....	100.9	100.0	101.0	101.1	99.6	101.0	101.9	99.3
1929—June.....	99.6	99.7	101.3	100.7	99.2	100.8	101.4	98.9
December.....	101.4	100.4	101.7	101.5	99.9	100.2	101.6	99.7
1930—June.....	98.7	98.4	100.3	98.8	97.6	98.6	99.0	97.8
December.....	95.9	95.4	95.6	96.5	94.3	93.8	95.2	93.5
1931—June.....	89.4	90.9	90.0	91.2	89.7	88.4	88.7	88.0
December.....	87.2	88.1	85.7	88.1	86.3	84.7	85.5	84.4
1932—June.....	80.5	83.5	82.3	84.2	80.4	78.7	80.1	77.1
December.....	78.6	79.9	78.4	81.0	76.8	76.0	78.0	73.4
1933—June.....	76.6	78.6	76.6	78.1	74.9	73.2	75.8	70.7
December.....	79.7	82.5	78.8	80.5	78.4	76.0	80.0	72.4
1934—June.....	81.3	83.6	80.2	81.8	79.9	77.7	80.8	72.7
November 15.....	82.0	84.4	79.9	82.1	79.6	77.8	80.6	73.5
1935—March 15.....	82.9	84.6	81.6	83.6	80.4	79.2	81.9	76.2
July 15.....	82.7	85.3	82.0	83.1	80.4	79.1	82.1	76.0
October 15.....	82.9	85.0	81.6	83.4	80.9	79.6	82.8	76.1
1936—January 15.....	83.0	85.3	82.5	84.2	81.9	79.9	83.2	76.7
April 15.....	82.6	84.7	81.8	83.0	81.3	79.1	81.8	76.2
July 15.....	84.2	86.5	84.1	83.8	82.1	80.7	83.2	77.6
September 15.....	83.5	85.7	83.3	84.4	82.1	80.8	83.2	78.4
December 15.....	83.3	85.8	83.8	84.3	82.5	80.8	83.7	78.5
1937—March 15.....	84.2	86.6	84.9	85.1	83.4	82.1	84.0	80.0
June 15.....	85.1	87.6	87.1	84.9	84.0	84.6	84.9	81.2
September 15.....	86.5	87.7	86.4	86.7	84.3	84.9	84.2	81.3
December 15.....	84.5	86.4	86.5	86.5	83.2	83.5	82.9	80.8
1938—March 15.....	82.4	85.0	85.0	84.0	82.4	82.4	82.0	79.4
June 15.....	83.0	85.1	84.1	84.3	83.1	82.9	82.1	80.5
September 15.....	82.9	84.6	83.6	84.3	82.5	82.6	80.7	79.7
December 15.....	82.3	84.1	84.6	84.8	81.9	82.3	81.3	79.3
1939—March 15.....	81.6	83.3	84.1	83.7	81.2	80.6	80.6	78.5
June 15.....	81.5	83.8	83.7	83.0	81.3	81.0	80.4	78.2
September 15.....	82.7	85.0	84.2	85.0	81.9	81.6	81.5	78.7

TABLE 6.—Indexes of Cost of All Goods Purchased by Wage Earners and Lower-Salaried Workers in Each of 32 Large Cities, June 1926 Through Sept. 15, 1939—Continued

[Average 1923-25=100]

Date	East North Central—Continued				West North Central			South Atlantic
	Cincinnati	Cleveland	Detroit	Indianapolis	Kansas City	Minneapolis	St. Louis	Atlanta
1926—June.....	105.4	102.6	101.4	101.9	101.5	102.5	104.2	102.7
December.....	104.6	101.8	100.4	101.2	99.6	100.9	103.7	100.9
1927—June.....	106.5	102.0	100.6	102.3	99.5	101.1	104.1	103.1
December.....	102.3	99.4	97.5	98.4	96.1	98.2	100.8	98.1
1928—June.....	102.8	99.2	96.2	98.0	96.2	98.5	100.2	99.0
December.....	102.0	98.1	96.3	97.4	95.6	97.6	99.8	98.7
1929—June.....	103.4	98.6	97.1	97.4	95.5	97.9	100.8	97.6
December.....	104.4	97.8	96.9	98.4	96.5	99.0	101.6	97.4
1930—June.....	103.0	97.8	94.6	97.1	95.1	98.0	99.5	94.0
December.....	98.8	93.3	88.3	91.9	92.6	94.0	94.7	89.9
1931—June.....	92.8	87.3	82.4	85.3	88.9	89.6	88.5	84.4
December.....	89.3	84.3	77.2	81.7	85.1	86.6	84.0	79.8
1932—June.....	82.9	80.5	71.6	77.0	79.0	80.9	79.5	75.9
December.....	79.7	76.4	67.9	73.9	76.9	78.2	76.4	71.9
1933—June.....	78.3	75.2	65.7	73.0	75.5	74.6	75.1	71.3
December.....	80.5	77.2	69.1	75.5	76.7	78.2	77.0	74.7
1934—June.....	81.7	78.6	71.5	77.0	77.9	79.2	78.7	75.8
November 15.....	82.2	78.8	71.9	76.5	79.2	79.6	79.4	77.1
1935—March 15.....	85.1	81.3	74.2	78.9	80.4	81.3	81.4	78.4
July 15.....	84.0	81.4	75.1	78.8	79.5	81.5	81.6	78.3
October 15.....	84.5	81.5	75.9	79.1	80.1	81.3	81.2	79.6
1936—January 15.....	85.2	81.7	76.7	79.8	80.2	82.6	82.1	79.9
April 15.....	84.3	81.7	77.0	79.2	79.6	81.8	81.4	79.0
July 15.....	87.2	83.4	78.9	81.4	81.9	83.9	82.8	80.6
September 15.....	87.4	84.3	79.0	81.8	82.9	84.5	83.8	81.5
December 15.....	86.2	83.8	78.8	81.5	82.0	84.7	82.9	81.3
1937—March 15.....	88.6	85.4	80.9	83.5	84.1	86.8	84.7	82.4
June 15.....	89.0	86.5	82.5	84.5	85.3	86.6	85.4	83.0
September 15.....	89.1	86.9	82.3	83.6	84.5	86.0	85.8	83.9
December 15.....	88.3	87.0	83.3	83.1	83.2	85.9	84.8	82.3
1938—March 15.....	86.8	86.0	81.9	81.9	82.0	84.8	83.5	80.5
June 15.....	87.2	86.3	81.5	82.4	82.6	85.6	83.8	80.3
September 15.....	86.3	85.8	80.0	81.5	81.8	83.9	83.2	80.0
December 15.....	85.7	85.8	79.8	81.4	81.9	84.2	82.9	80.3
1939—March 15.....	84.8	85.9	79.3	81.1	81.5	84.2	82.7	79.3
June 15.....	84.5	85.7	78.9	81.1	81.5	84.3	82.2	78.9
September 15.....	85.5	85.8	78.7	81.4	82.7	84.1	83.8	79.9

TABLE 6.—Indexes of Cost of All Goods Purchased by Wage Earners and Lower-Salaried Workers in Each of 32 Large Cities, June 1926 Through Sept. 15, 1939—Continued

[Average 1923-25=100]

Date	South Atlantic—Continued						East South Central	
	Balti- more	Jackson- ville	Norfolk	Rich- mond	Savan- nah	Wash- ington, D. C.	Birming- ham	Mem- phis
1926—June.....	103.4	109.0	101.7	104.7	102.4	103.2	103.0	100.8
December.....	102.5	107.7	101.4	102.9	101.6	102.5	102.1	100.0
1927—June.....	102.1	104.8	102.3	103.0	101.1	100.5	100.7	99.9
December.....	100.1	102.0	100.3	99.7	100.0	99.5	100.0	97.1
1928—June.....	100.1	98.7	99.6	100.0	99.2	99.1	98.2	96.5
December.....	99.1	98.2	99.9	98.5	99.8	98.6	97.5	97.0
1929—June.....	99.7	97.2	99.7	97.7	99.0	99.0	96.9	97.1
December.....	100.5	96.1	100.6	98.6	98.9	98.9	96.1	96.7
1930—June.....	99.5	94.1	98.8	98.1	96.9	97.4	94.2	96.0
December.....	95.8	90.6	95.4	93.5	93.2	94.7	89.3	91.3
1931—June.....	90.8	85.4	89.8	88.2	89.3	89.6	80.7	85.3
December.....	87.9	81.2	86.2	85.6	84.3	87.0	76.9	82.1
1932—June.....	82.7	76.3	81.2	80.3	79.1	82.0	70.9	77.0
December.....	79.9	73.5	78.7	77.1	76.7	79.1	68.5	73.8
1933—June.....	77.7	71.3	75.9	75.7	74.6	78.1	67.2	73.1
December.....	81.4	75.5	80.9	79.9	78.3	81.8	70.2	76.1
1934—June.....	82.0	76.6	82.5	80.9	78.9	83.0	71.0	77.0
November 15.....	82.9	77.2	82.9	81.7	79.4	83.9	73.4	78.8
1935—March 15.....	83.9	77.8	83.7	82.9	80.0	85.3	73.4	79.5
July 15.....	84.5	78.6	83.3	82.7	80.2	85.6	73.9	78.6
October 15.....	84.9	78.9	84.1	83.6	81.2	86.3	75.3	78.7
1936—January 15.....	85.6	79.4	84.9	83.6	81.2	86.7	75.0	79.4
April 15.....	85.0	78.5	83.7	82.8	79.4	85.5	73.9	79.3
July 15.....	86.0	80.2	84.8	84.3	80.7	87.0	76.0	80.5
September 15.....	86.4	80.1	85.2	85.5	81.0	87.4	76.5	81.1
December 15.....	86.4	80.4	85.7	86.0	81.1	87.6	76.4	81.5
1937—March 15.....	87.0	81.5	86.5	86.5	81.8	87.8	78.7	82.8
June 15.....	87.4	82.1	86.8	86.3	82.5	88.7	79.6	83.0
September 15.....	88.2	82.4	86.9	86.9	83.3	89.7	79.5	82.9
December 15.....	87.7	82.0	86.3	85.4	82.8	88.8	79.0	82.9
1938—March 15.....	86.3	80.0	85.1	84.0	81.4	87.1	77.6	81.7
June 15.....	86.7	79.8	84.4	83.1	81.2	87.2	77.2	81.7
September 15.....	86.5	79.9	84.5	83.5	80.8	87.0	77.2	81.5
December 15.....	86.2	79.2	84.5	83.3	80.9	86.8	76.8	81.0
1939—March 15.....	85.7	78.7	83.7	82.6	79.9	85.9	76.5	80.2
June 15.....	85.5	78.8	83.6	82.2	80.2	86.0	75.7	80.2
September 15.....	86.3	80.1	84.9	83.4	81.5	87.4	76.7	81.7

TABLE 6.—*Indexes of Cost of All Goods Purchased by Wage Earners and Lower-Salaried Workers in Each of 32 Large Cities, June 1926 Through Sept. 15, 1939—Continued*

[Average 1923-25=100]

Date	East South Central— Con.	West South Central		Moun- tain	Pacific			
	Mobile	Houston	New Orleans	Denver	Los Angeles	Port- land, Oreg.	San Fran- cisco	Seattle
1926—June.....	103.8	99.9	100.0	101.2	96.7	99.4	101.0	101.2
December.....	104.0	100.4	101.0	100.2	96.9	99.1	101.1	100.6
1927—June.....	103.6	98.3	101.2	100.7	97.0	98.9	101.3	101.6
December.....	102.4	98.6	99.9	96.4	95.5	97.3	100.5	98.8
1928—June.....	101.4	96.7	98.8	95.9	93.8	95.7	99.5	98.4
December.....	101.8	97.6	99.6	96.3	95.1	96.3	100.8	98.6
1929—June.....	101.0	97.4	98.3	96.6	94.1	95.1	100.0	99.2
December.....	101.6	98.6	98.9	96.7	94.0	95.8	100.3	99.6
1930—June.....	99.9	96.1	96.7	95.5	91.7	95.0	98.2	98.8
December.....	95.5	91.3	92.6	91.1	88.1	89.6	94.9	93.4
1931—June.....	88.9	86.0	85.1	86.5	82.4	85.5	89.7	90.4
December.....	85.3	83.4	84.5	82.9	80.7	82.9	86.8	87.3
1932—June.....	79.1	76.2	79.3	78.2	75.5	77.4	82.3	82.0
December.....	77.0	72.2	77.6	75.5	73.1	75.2	80.6	78.6
1933—June.....	74.9	71.6	75.4	74.5	69.8	72.7	78.6	78.1
December.....	79.2	75.1	79.1	76.1	72.5	74.4	81.8	79.2
1934—June.....	79.1	75.8	79.1	77.8	72.1	75.5	82.5	79.6
November 15.....	81.0	78.3	81.0	79.0	74.2	77.2	84.4	80.9
1935—March 15.....	82.2	79.3	82.0	81.2	75.5	78.8	84.8	82.1
July 15.....	81.7	78.2	81.9	81.2	74.6	78.8	83.2	82.2
October 15.....	82.1	79.4	81.4	80.8	74.8	79.3	84.0	82.2
1936—January 15.....	81.7	80.3	81.7	81.5	75.4	80.7	84.5	83.6
April 15.....	81.0	79.5	80.8	81.1	74.7	80.8	84.0	83.2
July 15.....	82.7	80.9	82.2	83.0	75.2	82.0	84.5	84.1
September 15.....	82.2	81.5	82.6	83.4	76.3	81.9	84.8	84.5
December 15.....	82.1	81.9	83.0	83.1	77.1	82.5	84.9	84.8
1937—March 15.....	84.2	83.2	84.0	85.0	79.8	85.0	86.8	87.3
June 15.....	84.9	82.8	84.2	85.9	79.4	85.6	87.5	88.1
September 15.....	85.1	84.0	85.2	85.8	79.5	85.9	88.6	88.6
December 15.....	84.1	83.9	84.4	85.4	79.2	85.0	89.2	88.5
1938—March 15.....	83.5	82.6	83.9	84.0	78.1	84.3	87.8	87.6
June 15.....	83.4	82.0	83.2	84.4	78.6	83.7	88.2	87.5
September 15.....	82.6	82.0	83.7	82.8	78.3	82.9	88.3	86.8
December 15.....	82.3	82.2	83.6	82.8	78.9	83.3	88.3	87.0
1939—March 15.....	82.2	81.4	83.4	82.4	78.2	82.7	87.5	86.8
June 15.....	82.2	81.3	83.3	¹ 82.3	77.7	82.8	86.7	87.1
September 15.....	83.0	82.8	84.8	82.3	78.1	83.5	88.2	87.8

¹ Corrected figure.

Description of the Indexes

A summary discussion of the method of preparing these indexes and of their uses in showing temporal changes in the cost of goods and services purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried workers in each of 32 large cities of the United States and in these cities combined is presented in the March and July 1938 issues of the Monthly Labor Review.

ESTIMATED INTERCITY DIFFERENCES IN COST OF LIVING, SEPTEMBER 15, 1939

IN March 1935, the Division of Social Research of the Works Progress Administration conducted a study of comparative living costs in 59 cities. The purpose of this study was to determine the cost of a uniform level of living in these cities at a given time, and how its cost compared from one city to another. Quantity budgets were constructed by the Works Progress Administration to represent the needs of families at two levels of living, the "basic maintenance" level and "emergency" level. An identical budget for each of these levels of living, with certain adjustments in the fuel, ice, and transportation lists to take account of climatic and other local conditions, was used in each city. The Bureau of Labor Statistics cooperated with the Division of Social Research of the Works Progress Administration in obtaining the prices necessary to compute the costs of the two budgets, using descriptive specifications to facilitate pricing identical commodities and services from city to city. Insofar as possible, prices for identical commodities were obtained in each city. Details of this study and a description of the goods and services included in each budget can be found in the report "Intercity differences in costs of living in March 1935, 59 cities," Research Monograph XII, a copy of which may be obtained from the Division of Research, Work Projects Administration, Washington, D. C.

Between March 1935 and the spring of 1939, no attempt was made to price these budgets. In order to bring the intercity comparison of costs up to date, estimates of the cost of the "maintenance" budget were made, however, for the 31 cities covered by both the Works Progress Administration study and the Bureau of Labor Statistics studies of changes in the cost of goods purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried workers. By applying the Bureau of Labor Statistics indexes of living costs, which show changes in costs from time to time, to the Works Progress Administration data on intercity differences in costs in March 1935, approximate intercity comparisons of costs were obtained. Since the cost-of-living indexes of the Bureau of Labor Statistics are based on a budget weighted differently from the budget used in the Works Progress Administration study, when the two sets of figures were combined, the resulting estimates of intercity differences in costs were merely approximations.

Early in 1939, the Bureau of Labor Statistics made a study of comparative living costs in 10 small cities. This study of "Differences in living costs in northern and southern cities" was made at the request of the Wage and Hour Division. Reprints of an article which appeared in the July 1939 Monthly Labor Review describing the survey are available on request to the Bureau of Labor Statistics.

In connection with this study of comparative living costs in 10 small cities, the Works Progress Administration "maintenance" budget was, in part, priced again for 31 large cities, using prices obtained as of December 15, 1938, and February 14, 1939.

The costs of the clothing, housefurnishings, fuel and light, and miscellaneous groups were recomputed on the basis of prices of 55 articles of clothing, 16 articles of furniture and furnishings, 5 items of fuel and light, and 37 miscellaneous items on December 15, 1938, and weighted by the quantities provided in the "maintenance" budget. The food cost budget was entirely recomputed in terms of the "adequate diet at minimum cost" of the United States Bureau of Home Economics (a somewhat more varied diet than that originally used in the "maintenance" budget). The cost of this budget was computed for 31 large cities with prices of the 61 foods priced by the Bureau of Labor Statistics for its indexes of changes in food costs. Average rents in each of the 31 cities were estimated by applying the Bureau's time-to-time indexes of rental costs to the Works Progress Administration's figures for March 1935.

TABLE 7.—*Estimated¹ Cost of Living for a 4-Person Manual Worker's Family at "Maintenance" Level, as Defined by the Works Progress Administration,² in 31 Large Cities as of Sept. 15, 1939*

City	Total	Food	Clothing	Housing	Fuel and light	Furniture, furnishings, household equipment	Miscellaneous
Atlanta.....	\$1,338.53	\$489.37	\$157.14	\$284.80	\$85.93	\$30.48	\$290.81
Baltimore.....	1,339.55	489.02	165.31	247.67	100.22	35.42	301.91
Birmingham.....	1,282.67	477.96	168.44	225.88	69.52	32.95	307.92
Boston.....	1,424.05	483.99	167.05	259.87	131.06	32.85	349.23
Buffalo.....	1,301.05	465.06	167.89	239.92	105.08	31.93	291.17
Chicago.....	1,446.46	470.74	158.33	290.48	128.90	31.79	366.22
Cincinnati.....	1,336.04	453.80	174.75	269.57	94.29	35.49	308.14
Cleveland.....	1,396.46	458.58	174.44	284.08	112.40	32.63	334.33
Denver.....	1,299.97	452.70	161.58	237.74	112.57	32.87	302.51
Detroit.....	1,418.46	458.01	165.96	306.28	112.28	31.99	343.94
Houston.....	1,317.26	465.61	157.15	245.49	87.63	35.00	326.38
Indianapolis.....	1,286.33	451.41	157.00	239.09	92.31	32.30	314.22
Jacksonville.....	1,306.95	499.31	147.05	217.32	99.64	32.52	311.11
Kansas City.....	1,278.29	472.55	170.84	209.03	103.41	33.49	288.97
Los Angeles.....	1,331.52	446.58	167.73	245.58	72.05	34.94	364.64
Memphis.....	1,314.17	455.95	170.81	260.50	82.80	35.79	308.32
Minneapolis.....	1,405.08	470.56	159.37	304.84	136.33	32.27	301.71
Mobile.....	1,195.94	479.80	154.00	175.09	78.88	34.11	274.06
New Orleans.....	1,278.61	475.43	159.21	205.51	73.86	36.85	327.75
New York.....	1,510.06	528.76	163.67	309.42	115.25	34.81	358.15
Norfolk.....	1,337.35	491.14	166.33	245.59	96.95	33.57	303.77
Philadelphia.....	1,340.83	485.49	166.57	255.41	99.47	32.90	300.99
Pittsburgh.....	1,365.66	473.08	166.10	285.47	88.33	33.90	318.78
Portland, Maine.....	1,345.65	495.73	161.64	201.55	142.95	32.90	310.88
Portland, Oreg.....	1,337.44	486.28	157.33	191.66	137.20	34.00	330.97
Richmond.....	1,340.64	461.88	164.73	261.97	104.05	34.16	323.85
St. Louis.....	1,393.54	481.91	160.54	284.15	108.03	37.38	321.53
San Francisco.....	1,462.25	494.68	170.99	285.28	84.94	37.20	389.16
Scranton.....	1,363.46	486.63	160.24	264.96	93.15	31.44	327.04
Seattle.....	1,385.26	499.79	169.69	195.99	124.28	35.40	360.11
Washington, D. C.....	1,502.65	502.29	170.78	351.21	111.97	35.92	330.48

¹ See explanation of method given on pp. 147-149.

² See the Works Progress Administration publication "Intercity differences in costs of living in March 1935, 59 cities," Research Monograph XII, for the items included in the maintenance budget.

The Bureau of Labor Statistics has prepared approximations for September 15, 1939, by applying the Bureau's indexes of living costs which show changes in cost from time to time, to the costs estimated by the Bureau as of December 15, 1938, for all items other than food. The food data were recalculated as of September 19, 1939. Table 7 shows estimated cost of living for a four-person manual worker's family, at the "maintenance" level as defined by the Works Progress Administration in 31 large cities, as of September 15. Table 8 presents these data as indexes on a base of the cost in Washington, D. C., as of that date as 100.

TABLE 8.—*Estimated ¹ Indexes of Cost of Living for a 4-Person Manual Worker's Family at "Maintenance" Level, as Defined by the Works Progress Administration ²*

[Washington costs as of Sept. 15, 1939=100]

City	Total	Food	Clothing	Housing	Fuel and light	Furniture, furnishings, household equipment	Miscellaneous
Atlanta.....	89.1	97.4	92.0	81.1	76.7	84.9	88.0
Baltimore.....	89.1	97.4	96.8	70.5	89.5	98.6	91.4
Birmingham.....	85.4	95.2	98.6	64.3	62.1	91.7	93.2
Boston.....	94.8	96.4	97.8	74.0	117.0	91.5	105.7
Buffalo.....	86.6	92.6	98.3	68.3	93.8	88.9	88.1
Chicago.....	96.3	93.7	92.7	82.7	115.1	88.5	110.8
Cincinnati.....	88.9	90.3	102.3	76.8	84.2	98.8	93.2
Cleveland.....	92.9	91.3	102.1	80.9	100.4	90.8	101.2
Denver.....	86.5	90.1	94.6	67.7	100.5	91.5	91.5
Detroit.....	94.4	91.2	97.2	87.2	100.3	89.1	104.1
Houston.....	87.7	92.7	92.0	69.9	78.3	97.4	98.8
Indianapolis.....	85.6	89.9	91.9	68.1	82.4	89.9	95.1
Jacksonville.....	87.0	99.4	86.1	61.9	89.0	90.5	94.1
Kansas City.....	85.1	94.1	100.0	59.5	92.4	93.2	87.4
Los Angeles.....	88.6	88.9	98.2	69.9	64.3	97.3	110.3
Memphis.....	87.5	90.8	100.0	74.2	73.9	99.6	93.3
Minneapolis.....	93.5	93.7	93.3	86.8	121.8	89.8	91.3
Mobile.....	79.6	95.5	90.2	49.9	70.4	95.0	82.9
New Orleans.....	85.1	94.7	93.2	58.5	66.0	102.6	99.2
New York.....	100.5	105.3	95.8	88.1	102.9	96.9	108.4
Norfolk.....	89.0	97.8	97.4	69.9	86.6	93.5	91.9
Philadelphia.....	89.2	96.7	97.5	72.7	88.8	91.6	91.1
Pittsburgh.....	90.9	94.2	97.3	81.3	78.9	94.4	96.5
Portland, Maine.....	89.6	98.7	94.6	57.4	127.7	91.6	94.1
Portland, Oreg.....	89.0	96.8	92.1	54.6	122.5	94.7	100.1
Richmond.....	89.2	92.0	96.5	71.7	92.9	95.1	98.0
St. Louis.....	92.7	95.9	94.0	80.9	96.5	104.1	97.3
San Francisco.....	97.3	98.5	100.1	81.2	75.9	103.6	117.8
Seranton.....	90.7	96.9	93.8	75.4	83.2	87.5	99.0
Seattle.....	92.2	99.5	99.4	55.8	111.0	98.6	109.0
Washington, D. C.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

¹ See explanation of method given on pp. 147-149.

² See the Works Progress Administration publication "Intercity differences in costs of living in March 1935, 59 cities," Research Monograph XII, for the items included in the maintenance budget.

LOW-COST RESTAURANTS IN LATIN AMERICA

THE movement toward low-cost or people's restaurants in Latin America was initiated in Peru in April 1932. The President of Peru was authorized to establish restaurants—eight in the capital, two in the nearby port of Callao, and one at each bathing resort—as a means of furnishing wholesome, abundant, and cheap food to the workers, and especially to the unemployed. Low-cost restaurants have been maintained by the Governments of Peru, Uruguay, and Chile since April 1934, July 1934, and 1936, respectively; and have been encouraged by the Governments of Argentina and Brazil.¹

Argentina

In Argentina the Municipal Nutrition Institute of Buenos Aires, which is subsidized by the Government, decided to open low-cost restaurants for demonstration purposes and to encourage the establishment of similar restaurants in every district. In 1936, certain institutions under the authority of the Government were operating cheap restaurants for workers, capable of serving 2,000 meals per day.

Brazil

At the Labor Conference of the American States, members of the International Labor Organization, at Santiago, Chile, in January 1936, Mr. Cavaco, Government advisor for the Brazilian delegation said: "The Brazilian Government has always taken a great interest in this problem of nutrition, and has done much in the direction of improving conditions of nourishment among Brazilian workers. We have established a number of splendid restaurants for workers, where they can obtain meals at their work places at very cheap prices."

The Brazilian Government, through the medical inspectors of the Ministry of Labor, Industry, and Commerce, encourages factories to establish restaurants for their workers. Some factories in Rio de Janeiro and Recife (Pernambuco) have already established such restaurants.

¹ This article is based upon data from the following reports: League of Nations, *the Problem of Nutrition*, vol. III (Nutrition in various countries), Geneva, 1936; International Labor Office, *Record of Proceedings of Labor Conference of the American States which are Members of the International Labor Organization*, at Santiago, Chile, January 2-14, 1936, Geneva, 1936; *Bulletin of the Pan American Union*, Washington, issues of March 1937, January 1939 (Spanish edition), and October 1939; Brazil, *Ministerio do Trabalho, Industria, e Commercio, Boletim*, Rio de Janeiro, January 1937; Chile, *Ministerio del Interior, Servicio de Restaurantes Populares, Conferencia sobre Alimentación el 29 de Septiembre de 1937*, Santiago, 1937; Chile, *Departamento de Municipalidades, Boletín Municipal de la República*, Santiago, issues of September and October 1937; Peru, *Caja Nacional de Seguro Social del Peru, Informaciones Sociales*, Lima, September 1938; Uruguay, *Ministerio de Instrucción Pública y Previsión Social, Instituto de Alimentación Científica del Pueblo* (report), Montevideo, 1938; Uruguay, *Instituto de Jubilaciones y Pensiones del Uruguay, Trabajo y Previsión Social*, Montevideo, February 1935.

Chile

Establishment of people's restaurants in Chile was first undertaken through private and municipal initiative. The first people's restaurant was opened in the municipality of Providencia; and the second was opened in Santiago on November 15, 1936, with accommodations for 280 diners and provision for selling food to take out. Both of these were municipal enterprises. On April 1, 1937, supreme decree No. 1341 provided for Government aid and supervision in the establishment of restaurants throughout the Republic, to serve suitable food to low-income people at cost plus expense of preparation and service; the sum of 250,000 pesos² was set aside for the purpose. Up to September 1, 1937, 29 municipalities had requested this aid. Three low-cost restaurants had already been established in Santiago as an unemployment-relief measure. In order to encourage prompt utilization of governmental aid, supreme decrees Nos. 3201 and 3202, of August 10, 1937, made Government aid available for the establishment of all people's restaurants.

People's restaurants in each locality are to be under the supervision of a permanent local commission, which makes recommendations to the Minister of the Interior regarding the establishment of restaurants, and under his general direction administers the funds and personnel employed in establishing and operating them. The creation of each people's restaurant is to be authorized by supreme decree, and its budget must take into account the amortization of the original investment and operation without loss and without profits. Government aid is granted only once for each restaurant and only up to 40,000 pesos for each restaurant with 200 or more seats. The operating subsidy is limited to 2,000 pesos per month for not to exceed 1 year; but a commission which, during its first year of operation, increases its financial resources through aid (in an amount equal to or greater than the cost of establishment) from the municipality, industrial enterprises, or individuals, may receive Government aid for another year. The funds which each commission receives as gifts, etc., are to constitute a permanent endowment. In case a restaurant is not operating successfully, the Minister of the Interior may, if necessary, dissolve its commission and close it; and any amounts on hand are to be returned to the Government. People's restaurants operated by private initiative may receive Government aid only once, and up to a maximum of 15,000 pesos, or double the amount furnished by the enterprise or individual.

Fifteen low-cost restaurants were open for business before the end of 1937, some under supervision of the central Government or a municipality, and some under that of industrial establishments.

² Average exchange rate of Chilean peso in December 1939=5.2 cents.

Within the first 3 months of operation the five principal establishments (one in Providencia and four in Santiago) had served more than 600,000 meals.

Peru

The Peruvian law of April 7, 1932 (No. 7504), respecting people's restaurants, recommended that premises already owned by the central or municipal governments be utilized, that the personnel should preferably be taken from the unemployed, and that 30 centavos³ should be the maximum price for a meal. To finance the scheme, a tax was imposed on certain brands of cigarettes; when this purpose was attained, further income from the tax was to accrue to the fund for the unemployed. On October 28, 1932, the Government authorized the expenditure of 500,000 sols for the immediate establishment of people's restaurants.

It is reported that all the restaurants except the first (which is in rented quarters adapted for the purpose) have been started on land owned by either the municipal or the central government, are situated near labor centers and localities where low-income families are concentrated, are easy of access, and are placed amid attractive surroundings and with sufficient space. In construction and operation of these restaurants, preference is given to Peruvian labor and products. Meals are served, in separate dining rooms for families and for unattached men, from 11 a. m. to 2 p. m. and from 6 to 9 p. m., at 20 and 30 centavos each. Provision is made for the sale of food to take out.

The restaurants are administered by a general manager under the general supervision of the Ministry of Public Health, Labor, and Social Welfare. An executive commission supervises the establishment and equipment of the restaurants, and an administrative commission their administration and operation.

The first five of these people's restaurants in Peru cost half a million sols. The first two restaurants (opened on April 9, 1934, and July 27, 1935) each had a seating capacity of 800; the third (opened early in 1936) was somewhat smaller. All of these restaurants were in Lima. A people's restaurant, opened in Callao, December 14, 1935, accommodated 800 diners in its 3 dining rooms. In 1938 a project for the erection of a people's restaurant in La Oroya was approved and funds were set aside for that purpose. It was expected to be in operation in 8 months' time.

From April 9, 1934, to December 26, 1935, over a million and a half persons were served. During 1936, five restaurants (employing 358 persons) served about 2,400,000 meals for adults, besides daily lunches for 10,000 school children. The amount expended, exclusive of extras and drinks, was 12,000,000 Chilean pesos.

³ Exchange rate of Peruvian sol (100 centavos) in 1932=21.4 cents; in December 1939=17.3 cents.

Uruguay

In Montevideo, beginning in 1932, meals were provided at Government expense, for the needy and especially the unemployed, by the National Public Restaurants Commission. By decree of July 19, 1934, the service was extended, under the same administration, to include the furnishing of good meals to workers at not to exceed 10 centésimos.⁴ This service operates under the Ministry of Public Instruction and Social Welfare.

The restaurants are commodious, and have separate dining rooms for families and for unattached men; the service is in cafeteria style. Additional portions of lettuce, whole-wheat bread, and butter are given without charge. Eleven of these restaurants were in operation in the city of Montevideo in 1937. Since the inauguration of the original inexpensive restaurants, others have been opened which serve meals, at from 15 to 25 centésimos, for people with somewhat higher income than a bare subsistence level. Meals are served 3 times a day: 6:30 to 8:30 a. m., 12 m. to 1 p. m., and 7 to 8 p. m.

During the first 6 months the restaurants were in operation, 55,579 persons patronized them; the total patrons in 1936 numbered 522,362 persons, or a monthly average of 43,530. From May 1, 1937, to April 30, 1938, the Scientific Nutrition Institute of the People served 1,578,009 meals in Montevideo and 2,175,282 meals throughout the Republic.

⁴ The controlled exchange value of the Uruguayan peso (100 centésimos) in December 1939=65.8 cents.

Industrial Disputes

TREND OF STRIKES

PRELIMINARY estimates indicate a decline of about 11 percent in number of strikes in November 1939 as compared with October. Around 42,000 workers were involved in the November strikes as compared with 105,000 in the October strikes—a decline of 60 percent. The number of man-days idle because of strikes in November, however, was a little greater than in October, due principally to the Chrysler dispute in Detroit which began early in October and kept many thousands of workers idle until a settlement was reached November 29.

*Trend of Strikes, 1933 to November 1939*¹

Year and month	Number of strikes					Workers involved in strikes		Man-days idle during month or year
	Continued from preceding month	Beginning in month or year	In progress during month	Ended in month	In effect at end of month	Beginning in month or year	In progress during month	
1933.....		1,695				1,168,272		16,872,128
1934.....		1,856				1,466,695		19,591,949
1935.....		2,014				1,117,213		15,456,337
1936.....		2,172				788,648		13,901,956
1937.....		4,740				1,860,621		28,424,857
1938.....		2,772				688,376		9,148,273
<i>1938</i>								
January.....	120	168	288	159	129	35,329	55,850	473,289
February.....	129	198	327	180	147	53,175	77,486	514,111
March.....	147	274	421	246	175	56,759	105,962	767,856
April.....	175	281	456	261	195	78,666	110,950	838,158
May.....	195	300	495	290	205	83,029	124,682	1,174,052
June.....	205	219	424	245	179	52,801	95,854	871,002
July.....	179	208	387	215	172	50,193	85,672	776,237
August.....	172	262	434	272	162	48,378	81,052	880,987
September.....	162	222	384	234	150	96,399	133,357	989,916
October.....	150	256	406	241	165	52,703	113,074	842,202
November.....	165	207	372	239	133	43,128	75,445	557,903
December.....	133	177	310	190	120	37,816	62,160	512,560
<i>1939</i>								
January.....	120	183	303	176	127	50,279	71,547	513,840
February.....	127	183	310	186	124	67,113	86,703	543,407
March.....	124	198	322	185	137	41,926	62,837	609,223
April.....	137	235	372	220	152	391,107	419,811	4,879,739
May.....	152	230	382	239	143	93,414	453,968	3,527,880
June.....	143	216	359	239	120	59,672	124,829	953,293
July.....	120	204	324	190	134	172,100	207,699	1,158,795
August.....	134	224	358	211	147	74,963	111,510	1,061,021
September.....	147	158	305	176	129	34,939	99,084	867,001
October ¹	129	186	315	190	125	105,000	130,000	1,500,000
November ¹	125	165	290	175	115	42,000	125,000	1,600,000

¹ Strikes involving fewer than 6 workers or lasting less than 1 day are not included in this table nor in the following tables. Notices or leads regarding strikes are obtained by the Bureau from more than 650 daily papers, labor papers, and trade journals, as well as from all Government labor boards. Letters are written to representatives of parties in the disputes asking for detailed and authentic information. Since answers to some of these letters have not yet been received, the figures given for the late months are not final. This is particularly true with regard to figures for the last 2 months, and these should be considered as preliminary estimates.

As compared with November a year ago, the figures for November 1939 indicate a reduction of 20 percent in number of strikes, about the same number of workers involved, and an increase of 187 percent in man-days of idleness.

Figures shown in the preceding table for October and November 1939 are preliminary estimates based on newspaper reports and other information available as this goes to press. An analysis of strikes in each of these months, based on detailed and verified information, will appear in subsequent issues of the Monthly Labor Review.



STRIKES IN SEPTEMBER 1939 ¹

THERE were fewer strikes in September 1939 than in any preceding month of the year. Also, fewer workers were involved in the September strikes than in strikes of the earlier months. The amount of idleness caused by strikes in September, however, was somewhat greater than in each of the first 3 months, as one or two rather large strikes—the strike of Philadelphia building-trades workers and that at the Celanese Corporation of America in Cumberland, Md.—continued into September from August. Detailed information has been obtained concerning 158 strikes beginning in September in which nearly 35,000 workers were involved. There were 867,000 man-days of idleness as a result of these and 147 additional strikes which continued into September from preceding months.

There were more new strikes (23) in the transportation and communication industries in September than in any other industry group. There were 21 in the lumber and allied products industries, 20 in trade, and 15 in building and construction. More workers (6,361) were involved in new strikes in the automobile-manufacturing than in any other industry group. There were 4,337 workers involved in building and construction strikes beginning in September and 4,302 workers involved in the iron and steel industries. The greatest number of man-days idle because of strikes in September in any industry group was in the textile industries (nearly 117,000), caused principally by 20 strikes which continued into September from preceding months. There were about 106,000 man-days of idleness in the lumber industries, 92,000 in the food industries, 89,000 in building and construction, and 84,000 in automobile manufacturing.

¹ Detailed information on a few strikes has not yet been received. (See footnote to preceding table.) Data on missing strikes will be included in the annual report.

TABLE 1.—*Strikes in September 1939, by Industry*

Industry	Beginning in September		In progress during September		Man-days idle during September
	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved	
All industries.....	158	34,939	305	99,084	867,001
Iron and steel and their products, not including machinery.....	5	4,302	8	4,676	29,027
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills.....	2	3,948	2	3,948	20,550
Cutlery (not including silver and plated cutlery), and edge tools.....	1	19	1	19	152
Forgings, iron and steel.....	1	255	1	255	765
Hardware.....	1	374	1	374	7,480
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings.....	1	80	1	80	80
Machinery, not including transportation equipment.....	11	2,167	17	2,595	25,040
Electrical machinery, apparatus, and supplies.....	4	786	5	835	6,724
Foundry and machine-shop products.....	2	428	4	650	6,116
Radios and phonographs.....	1	33	1	33	660
Other.....	5	953	7	1,077	11,540
Transportation equipment.....	5	6,361	9	9,700	84,457
Automobiles, bodies and parts.....	5	6,361	9	9,700	84,457
Nonferrous metals and their products.....	1	19	5	2,186	20,478
Aluminum manufactures.....	1	19	1	19	95
Brass, bronze, and copper products.....	1	554	1	554	5,540
Jewelry.....	1	18	1	18	198
Smelting and refining—copper, lead, and zinc.....	1	1,595	2	1,595	14,645
Lumber and allied products.....	21	2,688	35	8,744	105,934
Furniture.....	13	1,337	17	1,846	19,190
Millwork and planing.....	3	714	5	809	8,434
Sawmills and logging camps.....	3	579	7	5,647	72,453
Other.....	2	58	6	352	5,857
Stone, clay, and glass products.....	4	1,152	7	1,321	7,653
Brick, tile, and terra cotta.....	1	146	1	146	392
Cement.....	1	32	1	32	256
Other.....	3	1,120	5	1,143	7,005
Textiles and their products.....	8	2,238	28	9,532	116,674
Fabrics:					
Cotton goods.....	1	319	3	3,140	52,540
Dyeing and finishing textiles.....	1	319	1	319	1,276
Silk and rayon goods.....	2	345	4	1,346	16,091
Woolen and worsted goods.....	1	1,159	2	1,159	8,432
Other.....	1	602	4	602	11,734
Wearing apparel:					
Clothing, women's.....	2	1,124	6	1,297	6,587
Hats, caps, and millinery.....	1	14	1	14	224
Shirts and collars.....	1	277	1	277	1,939
Hosiery.....	1	619	4	619	11,533
Other.....	1	159	2	759	6,318
Leather and its manufactures.....	4	751	9	2,624	34,049
Boots and shoes.....	1	90	3	957	17,790
Leather.....	1	164	1	164	3,280
Other leather goods.....	2	497	4	1,503	12,979
Food and kindred products.....	9	891	19	5,288	91,773
Baking.....	1	14	2	34	514
Beverages.....	1	8	1	8	200
Canning and preserving.....	1	177	3	1,092	22,472
Flour and grain mills.....	1	116	1	116	812
Slaughtering and meat packing.....	4	509	7	1,739	22,970
Sugar refining, cane.....	1	2,142	1	2,142	42,840
Other.....	2	75	4	157	1,965
Tobacco manufactures.....	1	50	2	700	13,250
Cigars.....	1	50	2	700	13,250
Paper and printing.....	4	54	12	355	5,167
Boxes, paper.....	1	33	1	33	660
Printing and publishing:					
Book and job.....	2	17	3	31	200
Newspapers and periodicals.....	1	8	4	42	425
Other.....	1	29	4	249	3,882
Chemicals and allied products.....	5	9,710	5	9,710	32,278
Chemicals.....	2	314	2	314	5,762
Petroleum refining.....	1	230	1	230	4,600
Rayon and allied products.....	2	9,206	2	9,206	21,914
Rubber products.....	1	478	6	1,412	12,867
Other rubber goods.....	1	478	6	1,412	12,867
Miscellaneous manufacturing.....	5	861	11	1,751	13,886
Electric light, power, and manufactured gas.....	2	790	2	790	5,332
Other.....	3	71	9	961	8,554
Extraction of minerals.....	6	2,587	14	3,707	13,909
Coal mining, anthracite.....	2	655	4	935	4,623
Coal mining, bituminous.....	2	1,127	4	1,437	3,452
Metalliferous mining.....	2	322	2	322	2,395
Quarrying and nonmetallic mining.....	2	805	2	805	3,015
Other.....	2	208	2	208	424

TABLE 1.—*Strikes in September 1939, by Industry—Continued*

Industry	Beginning in September		In progress during September		Man-days idle during September
	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved	
Transportation and communication.....	23	2,943	28	3,561	28,981
Water transportation.....	7	1,073	9	1,404	10,778
Motortruck transportation.....	9	1,290	11	1,497	10,320
Motorbus transportation.....	2	19	3	99	127
Taxis and miscellaneous.....	1	173	1	173	1,903
Telephone and telegraph.....	2	349	2	349	5,607
Radio broadcasting and transmitting.....	1	9	1	9	216
Other.....	1	30	1	30	30
Trade.....	20	1,480	33	4,331	43,205
Wholesale.....	7	466	9	681	10,920
Retail.....	13	1,014	24	3,650	32,285
Domestic and personal service.....	10	799	21	2,812	30,331
Hotels, restaurants, and boarding houses.....	1	8	4	153	2,897
Personal service, barbers, beauty parlors.....			1	23	460
Laundries.....	4	582	7	1,804	20,004
Dyeing, cleaning, and pressing.....	1	26	4	643	5,603
Elevator and maintenance workers (when not attached to specific industry).....	1	120	1	120	840
Other.....	3	63	4	69	527
Professional service.....			2	86	1,122
Recreation and amusement.....			1	50	1,050
Professional.....			1	36	72
Building and construction.....	15	4,337	25	20,172	89,241
Buildings, exclusive of PWA.....	11	3,857	20	19,631	86,579
All other construction (bridges, docks, etc., and PWA buildings).....	4	480	5	541	2,662
Agriculture and fishing.....	2	300	6	3,270	65,875
Agriculture.....	2	300	2	300	2,850
Fishing.....			4	2,970	63,025
WPA, relief, and resettlement projects.....	2	281	2	281	283
Other nonmanufacturing industries.....	1	200	4	230	1,513

Nearly half of the 158 strikes beginning in September were in four States: New York (36), Pennsylvania (16), New Jersey (11), and California (10). The greatest number of workers involved in new strikes during the month were in Pennsylvania (7,366), New York (5,768), Indiana (4,132), and Michigan (3,784). The greatest number of man-days of idleness because of strikes occurred in Pennsylvania (152,000), California (107,000), Michigan (79,000), and New York (67,000). In Pennsylvania the strike of Philadelphia building-trades workers which began late in August and continued for about a week in September accounted for a large portion of the idleness. In California a large amount of idleness was due to the strike of sardine fishermen in the San Francisco Bay area which began in August and continued throughout the month of September.

Of the 158 strikes beginning in September, 7 extended into two or more States (see table 2). The largest of these strikes involved about 700 seamen at New York and New Jersey piers who demanded additional compensation and insurance before sailing on vessels entering European war zones. After a week's delay, an agreement was reached under the terms of which the seamen were to receive a 25-percent increase in pay, a \$150 allowance for clothing and other

personal property if lost as a result of the war, continuing pay if interned in a foreign port, and transportation back home if removed from their ships for causes arising from the war.

TABLE 2.—*Strikes in September 1939, by States*

State	Beginning in September		In progress during September		Man-days idle during September
	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved	
All States.....	158	34,939	305	99,084	867,001
Alabama.....	2	62	3	562	10,579
Arizona.....			1	87	750
Arkansas.....	2	545	2	545	4,160
California.....	10	1,028	25	5,807	106,550
Colorado.....	3	543	4	778	4,677
Connecticut.....	2	192	3	238	874
District of Columbia.....	2	406	3	606	3,874
Florida.....	2	82	5	1,413	13,443
Illinois.....	6	1,446	12	2,355	27,248
Indiana.....	5	4,132	12	5,286	34,775
Iowa.....	1	70	3	124	446
Kansas.....	1	12	3	92	308
Kentucky.....			1	275	550
Maryland.....	1	40	4	9,214	20,182
Massachusetts.....	7	529	14	4,800	45,113
Michigan.....	9	3,784	13	7,354	78,828
Minnesota.....	3	158	6	325	2,913
Missouri.....	8	916	10	979	9,077
Montana.....			1	33	825
Nevada.....	1	50	1	50	100
New Hampshire.....			1	110	2,200
New Jersey.....	11	868	24	2,957	25,444
New York.....	36	5,768	63	8,255	67,361
North Carolina.....	2	349	3	889	2,206
North Dakota.....			1	217	5,425
Ohio.....	5	1,843	9	2,410	24,588
Oklahoma.....	1	10	2	112	1,754
Oregon.....	4	605	4	605	2,596
Pennsylvania.....	16	7,366	35	25,853	151,744
Rhode Island.....	1	80	3	325	4,735
South Carolina.....			1	2,100	42,000
Tennessee.....	2	60	5	575	10,945
Texas.....	1	140	3	565	12,710
Utah.....			1	435	3,045
Washington.....	1	214	4	2,217	38,384
West Virginia.....	1	270	1	270	2,160
Wisconsin.....	5	1,633	6	1,766	7,138
Interstate.....	7	1,738	13	8,500	97,294

There were no extremely large strikes beginning in September—none in which as many as 5,000 workers were involved. The average number of workers involved in the 158 strikes was 221. About 61 percent of the strikes involved fewer than 100 workers each, 36 percent involved 100 and up to 1,000 workers each, and only 5 strikes (3 percent) involved 1,000 or more workers each. (See table 3.)

Union-organization matters—recognition, closed shop, discrimination, etc.—were the major issues involved in 52 percent of the strikes beginning in September. These strikes included approximately 48 percent of the total workers involved. Wages and hours—questions of wage increases principally—were the major issues in 33 percent of the strikes which included 40 percent of the total workers involved. In 15 percent of the strikes, in which 12 percent of the total workers were involved, the major issues were miscellaneous matters including jurisdictional, rival union or factional disputes, sympathy strikes, and

disputes involving specific grievances such as delayed pay, change in method of wage payment, and unsanitary or dangerous working conditions. (See table 4.)

TABLE 3.—*Strikes Beginning in September 1939, Classified by Number of Workers Involved*

Industry group	Total	Number of strikes in which the number of workers involved was—				
		6 and under 20	20 and under 100	100 and under 500	500 and under 1,000	1,000 and under 5,000
All industries.....	158	32	64	47	10	5
<i>Manufacturing</i>						
Iron and steel and their products, not including machinery.....	5	1	1	2		1
Machinery, not including transportation equipment.....	11	1	4	4	2	
Transportation equipment.....	5		1	1	1	2
Nonferrous metals and their products.....	1	1				
Lumber and allied products.....	21	2	13	6		
Stone, clay, and glass products.....	4		3		1	
Textiles and their products.....	8	1	1	5		1
Leather and its manufactures.....	4		2	2		
Food and kindred products.....	9	2	3	4		
Tobacco manufactures.....	1		1			
Paper and printing.....	4	3	1			
Rubber products.....	1			1		
Miscellaneous manufacturing.....	5	2	1	1	1	
<i>Nonmanufacturing</i>						
Extraction of minerals.....	6		1	2	3	
Transportation and communication.....	23	7	9	5	2	
Trade.....	20	6	9	5		
Domestic and personal service.....	10	3	5	2		
Building and construction.....	15	2	8	4		1
Agriculture.....	2		1	1		
WPA, relief, and resettlement projects.....	2	1		1		
Other nonmanufacturing industries.....	1			1		

TABLE 4.—*Major Issues Involved in Strikes Beginning in September 1939*

Major issue	Strikes		Workers involved	
	Number	Percent of total	Number	Percent of total
All issues.....	158	100.0	34,939	100.0
<i>Wages and hours</i>				
Wage increase.....	52	32.9	13,924	39.9
Wage decrease.....	35	22.2	5,080	14.5
Wage increase, hour decrease.....	8	5.1	4,633	13.3
Hour increase.....	4	2.5	1,122	3.2
Hour decrease.....	1	.6	26	.1
Union organization.....	4	2.5	3,063	8.8
Recognition.....	82	51.9	16,850	48.2
Recognition and wages.....	15	9.5	3,234	9.3
Recognition and hours.....	16	10.1	3,964	11.3
Recognition, wages, and hours.....	1	.6	6	(1)
Closed or union shop.....	14	8.9	4,723	13.5
Discrimination.....	21	13.3	3,447	9.9
Other.....	9	5.7	490	1.4
Miscellaneous.....	6	3.8	956	2.8
Sympathy.....	24	15.2	4,165	11.9
Rival unions or factions.....	2	1.3	36	.1
Jurisdiction ¹	3	1.9	636	1.8
Other.....	2	1.3	224	.6
	17	10.7	3,269	9.4

¹ Less than a tenth of 1 percent.

² It is probable that the figures here given do not include all jurisdictional strikes. Due to the local nature of these disputes, it is difficult for the Bureau to find out about all of them.

Of the 305 strikes in progress during September, 176 were terminated during the month with an average duration of 25½ calendar days. About 29 percent of these strikes were terminated in less than 1 week after they began, 43 percent lasted 1 week and up to 1 month, 23 percent lasted 1 but less than 3 months, and 5 percent (9 strikes) had been in progress 3 months or more. The largest strike in this latter group was at plants of the Highland Cotton Mills, Inc., at High Point, N. C., where more than 500 workers struck in June in protest against an increased work load. This strike was settled by signed agreement September 2.

TABLE 5.—Duration of Strikes Ending in September 1939

Industry group	Total	Number of strikes with duration of—					
		Less than 1 week	1 week and less than one-half month	One-half and less than 1 month	1 and less than 2 months	2 and less than 3 months	3 months or more
All industries.....	176	51	46	29	29	12	9
<i>Manufacturing</i>							
Iron and steel and their products, not including machinery.....	2		2				
Machinery, not including transportation equipment.....	5	1	1	2		1	
Transportation equipment.....	3	1	1				1
Nonferrous metals and their products.....	5		2			2	1
Lumber and allied products.....	17	3	8	2	3		1
Stone, clay, and glass products.....	5	1	1		3		
Textiles and their products.....	13	3	2	3	3	1	1
Leather and its manufactures.....	2		1	1	1		
Food and kindred products.....	11	5	2	2	1	1	
Tobacco manufactures.....	1		1				
Paper and printing.....	7	2	1	3	1		
Chemicals and allied products.....	3				2		1
Rubber products.....	5		1		3	1	
Miscellaneous manufacturing.....	5	2		2	1		
<i>Nonmanufacturing</i>							
Extraction of minerals.....	13	5	2	2	1	1	2
Transportation and communication.....	22	13	4	2	1	2	
Trade.....	16	1	5	4	5		1
Domestic and personal service.....	12	3	5		2	2	
Professional service.....	2		1			1	
Building and construction.....	18	8	4	5	1		
Agriculture and fishing.....	4	1	1	1	1		
WPA, relief, and resettlement projects.....	2	2					
Other nonmanufacturing industries.....	3		2				1

Of the 67,236 workers involved in strikes which ended in September, 75 percent were assisted by Government officials or boards in obtaining settlements of the disputed issues. These workers were in 44 percent of the 176 strikes ending in the month. Settlements for 17 percent of the workers, in 38 percent of the strikes, were obtained through negotiations directly between union representatives and employers.

There were no formal settlements of 16 percent of the strikes, which included more than 4 percent of the total workers. In most of these

cases the workers simply returned to work without settlements or they lost their jobs entirely when employers replaced them with new workers, moved to a different locality, or went out of business.

TABLE 6.—*Methods of Negotiating Settlements of Strikes Ending in September 1939*

Negotiations toward settlements carried on by—	Strikes		Workers involved	
	Number	Percent of total	Number	Percent of total
Total.....	176	100.0	67,236	100.0
Employers and workers directly.....	1	.6	275	.4
Employers and representatives of organized workers directly.....	67	38.1	11,361	16.9
Government officials or boards.....	78	44.3	50,297	74.8
Private conciliators or arbitrators.....	2	1.1	2,350	3.5
Terminated without formal settlement.....	28	15.9	2,953	4.4

About 38 percent of the strikes ending in September, including 32 percent of the workers involved, were successful from the workers' point of view; 37 percent, including 38 percent of the workers involved, resulted in compromise settlements; and 20 percent of the strikes, including 4 percent of the workers involved, were lost.

TABLE 7.—*Results of Strikes Ending in September 1939*

Result	Strikes		Workers involved	
	Number	Percent of total	Number	Percent of total
Total.....	176	100.0	67,236	100.0
Substantial gains to workers.....	67	38.1	21,791	32.4
Partial gains or compromises.....	65	36.9	25,802	38.4
Little or no gains to workers.....	35	19.9	2,838	4.2
Jurisdiction, rival union, or faction settlements.....	6	3.4	1,619	2.4
Not reported.....	3	1.7	15,186	22.6

In terms of number of strikes, the wage-and-hour strikes ending in September were more successful from the workers' point of view than those principally over union-organization matters. About 39 percent of the strikes in each group were won, but 49 percent of the wage-and-hour strikes were compromised, as compared with 35 percent of the union-organization strikes; and 12 percent of the wage-and-hour strikes were lost as compared with 25 percent of the latter group.

In terms of number of workers involved, the strikes over union-organization matters appear to have been the more successful of the two groups. About 45 percent of the workers involved in the union-organization strikes substantially won what was demanded, 51 percent obtained compromise settlements, and only 4 percent gained little or nothing. In the wage-and-hour strikes, 36 percent of the workers won, 57 percent obtained compromise settlements, and 7 percent gained little or nothing.

TABLE 8.—Results of Strikes Ending in September 1939, in Relation to Major Issues Involved

Major issue	Total	Strikes resulting in—				
		Substan- tial gains to workers	Partial gains or compro- mises	Little or no gains to workers	Jurisdic- tion, rival union, or faction settle- ments	Not reported
Number of strikes						
All issues.....	176	67	65	35	6	3
Wages and hours.....	51	20	25	6		
Wage increase.....	38	13	21	4		
Wage decrease.....	4	3		1		
Wage increase, hour decrease.....	5	2	2	1		
Hour increase.....	1	1				
Hour decrease.....	3	1	2			
Union organization.....	94	37	33	23		1
Recognition.....	24	12	5	7		
Recognition and wages.....	15	3	6	6		
Recognition and hours.....	1	1				
Recognition, wages, and hours.....	16	8	5	3		
Closed or union shop.....	20	6	9	5		
Discrimination.....	11	4	4	2		
Other.....	7	3	4			
Miscellaneous.....	31	10	7	6	6	2
Sympathy.....	1	1				
Rival unions or factions.....	3				3	
Jurisdiction.....	3				3	
Other.....	24	9	7	6		2
Number of workers involved						
All issues.....	67,236	21,791	25,802	2,838	1,619	15,186
Wages and hours.....	17,858	6,434	10,234	1,190		
Wage increase.....	8,292	1,495	6,117	680		
Wage decrease.....	3,991	3,716		275		
Wage increase, hour decrease.....	2,500	1,165	1,100	235		
Hour increase.....	26	26				
Hour decrease.....	3,049	32	3,017			
Union organization.....	28,140	12,610	14,325	1,134		71
Recognition.....	3,784	1,194	2,308	282		
Recognition and wages.....	11,055	9,176	1,493	386		
Recognition and hours.....	633	633				
Recognition, wages, and hours.....	4,611	189	4,272	150		
Closed or union shop.....	5,741	1,011	4,513	217		
Discrimination.....	1,275	251	854	99		71
Other.....	1,041	156	885			
Miscellaneous.....	21,238	2,747	1,243	514	1,619	15,115
Sympathy.....	23	23				
Rival unions or factions.....	1,310				1,310	
Jurisdiction.....	309				309	
Other.....	19,596	2,724	1,243	514		15,115

ACTIVITIES OF UNITED STATES CONCILIATION SERVICE, NOVEMBER 1939

THE United States Conciliation Service in November 1939 disposed of 265 situations involving 57,157 workers. The services of this agency were requested by the employees, employers, and other interested parties. Of these situations, 150 were strikes, threatened strikes, lock-outs, and controversies, involving 54,704 workers. The remaining situations, involving 2,453 workers, were services rendered, such as filling requests for information, adjusting complaints, holding conferences regarding labor conditions, etc.

The facilities of the Service were used in 27 major industrial fields, such as building trades and the manufacture of foods, iron and steel, textiles, etc. (table 1), and were utilized by employees and employers in 38 States and the District of Columbia (table 2).

TABLE 1.—*Situations Disposed of by U. S. Conciliation Service, November 1939, by Industries*

Industry	Disputes		Other situations		Total	
	Num- ber	Workers involved	Num- ber	Workers involved	Num- ber	Workers involved
All industries.....	150	54,704	115	2,453	265	57,157
Agriculture.....	1	400	—	—	1	400
Automobile.....	2	1,101	—	—	2	1,101
Building trades.....	3	288	9	34	12	322
Chemicals.....	4	661	2	634	6	1,295
Communications.....	1	9	1	3	2	12
Hotels, restaurants, and domestic and personal service.....	10	1,514	1	1	11	1,515
Food.....	17	4,562	7	630	24	5,192
Iron and steel.....	10	2,004	6	531	16	2,535
Leather.....	3	435	1	1	4	436
Lumber and furniture.....	8	1,121	1	1	9	1,122
Machinery.....	8	1,323	6	20	14	1,343
Maritime.....	5	17,610	3	30	8	17,640
Mining.....	2	620	5	5	7	625
Motion pictures.....	1	7	—	—	1	7
Nonferrous metals.....	7	2,764	—	—	7	2,764
Paper.....	2	861	2	41	4	902
Petroleum.....	5	4,800	4	51	9	4,851
Professional.....	3	1,056	—	—	3	1,056
Printing.....	4	146	1	1	5	147
Rubber.....	1	90	1	2	2	92
Stone, clay, and glass.....	8	973	2	3	10	976
Textile.....	11	4,608	11	18	22	4,626
Tobacco.....	1	725	1	1	2	726
Trade.....	11	3,221	4	13	15	3,234
Transportation.....	9	638	7	8	16	646
Transportation equipment.....	1	763	—	—	1	763
Utilities.....	1	8	—	—	1	8
Unclassified.....	11	2,396	40	425	51	2,821

TABLE 2.—Situations Disposed of by U. S. Conciliation Service,
November 1939, by States

States	Disputes		Other situations		Total	
	Num- ber	Workers involved	Num- ber	Workers involved	Num- ber	Workers involved
All States.....	150	54,704	115	2,453	265	57,157
Alabama.....	7	1,613	5	154	12	1,767
Arkansas.....	2	147	1	1	3	148
Arizona.....	3	169			3	169
California.....	4	7,807	1	1	5	7,808
Colorado.....			1	1	1	1
District of Columbia.....	9	687	26	47	35	734
Florida.....	5	1,903	2	2	7	1,905
Georgia.....	1	50	1	1	2	51
Illinois.....	15	7,869	10	24	25	7,893
Indiana.....	6	902	7	183	13	1,085
Iowa.....	1	2,850	1	10	2	2,860
Kentucky.....	4	685			4	685
Louisiana.....	1	30			1	30
Maine.....	1	11			1	11
Maryland.....	4	193	2	2	6	195
Massachusetts.....	3	305	5	622	8	927
Michigan.....	2	608	1	1	3	609
Minnesota.....	1	40	1	8	2	48
Mississippi.....			5	6	5	6
Missouri.....	6	3,898	1	28	7	3,926
Montana.....	1		1	1	1	1
Nebraska.....	1	287	1	220	2	507
New Mexico.....	5	678	1	1	6	679
New Jersey.....	3	1,900	2	7	5	1,907
New York.....	9	7,444	9	58	18	7,502
North Carolina.....	4	3,081	4	9	8	3,090
North Dakota.....	1	265			1	265
Ohio.....	7	1,425	4	5	11	1,430
Oklahoma.....	1	104	1	1	2	105
Pennsylvania.....	23	4,531	6	536	29	5,067
Rhode Island.....			1	500	1	500
South Carolina.....			3	3	3	3
Texas.....	3	1,014	4	9	7	1,023
Tennessee.....	3	889	1	1	4	890
Utah.....			3	3	3	3
Virginia.....	7	2,216			7	2,216
Washington.....	1	20	2	2	3	22
West Virginia.....	3	460			3	460
Wisconsin.....	4	623	2	6	6	629

Immigration

IMMIGRATION AND NATURALIZATION, 1938-39

IN THE fiscal year ended June 30, 1939, only 82,998 immigrant aliens were admitted for permanent residence as compared with 1,285,349 in 1907, the peak year of immigration to the United States. However, the 1939 figure exceeded that of the previous year by 15,103, according to the latest annual report of the Commissioner of Immigration and Naturalization.¹

Admissions and Departures

The increase of quota immigration in the fiscal year 1939 to 62,402 from 27,762 in 1937 was largely due to "the pressure imposed by certain European governments to drive into exile elements of their population uncongenial to the ruling group." In table 1 the number of aliens admitted, departed, and debarred is given for 1938-39, the number of immigrant aliens admitted at all ports being 82,998, which exceeds the number of emigrant aliens departing by 56,347.

TABLE 1.—*Aliens Admitted and Departed, Aliens Debarred, and United States Citizens Arrived and Departed, Year Ended June 30, 1939, by Principal Ports*

Port	Arrivals ¹				Departures ¹		
	Aliens admitted		United States citizens	Aliens debarred	Aliens departed		United States citizens
	Immigrant	Nonimmigrant			Emigrant	Nonemigrant	
All ports.....	82,998	185,333	354,438	6,498	26,651	174,758	333,399
New York, N. Y.....	62,035	114,332	237,667	537	15,061	104,963	217,445
Boston, Mass.....	875	3,780	6,575	28	576	4,353	6,951
Philadelphia, Pa.....	26	191	897	2	3	104	933
Baltimore, Md.....	12	115	282	2	1	37	226
Miami, Fla.....	2,127	16,882	58,026	65	710	17,340	56,339
Key West, Fla.....	113	1,794	6,182	4	70	1,165	4,897
Tampa, Fla.....	76	916	2,898	12	5	853	3,852
New Orleans, La.....	280	1,499	7,447	22	249	1,394	9,101
Galveston, Tex.....	24	61	161	17	155	18	247
San Francisco, Calif.....	895	5,609	6,402	58	1,020	4,883	5,558
Seattle, Wash.....	103	1,010	1,359	69	166	706	699
Los Angeles, Calif.....	755	3,326	5,874	21	544	3,350	5,465
Other seaports.....	361	6,096	9,326	89	2,370	13,590	16,101
Canadian land border.....	12,474	25,585	10,749	4,950	715	19,603	2,874
Mexican land border.....	2,842	4,137	593	622	5,006	2,399	2,711

¹ Exclusive of cruise passengers, travelers between continental United States and outlying possessions, and persons habitually crossing and recrossing the international land boundaries, such as commuters, motor tourists, and short-time visitors.

¹ United States Department of Labor. Report of the Secretary of Labor for the fiscal year ended June 30, 1939. Washington, 1939.

The admissions of immigrant aliens and the departures of emigrant aliens in the fiscal years 1936 through June 30, 1939, are reported by countries of last or intended future permanent residence in table 2. A continued increase in the number of alien immigrants admitted since 1936 is shown, the total for that year being only 36,329 as compared to 82,998 in 1939.

TABLE 2.—Immigrant Aliens Admitted and Emigrant Aliens Departed, Fiscal Years 1936 to 1939, by Countries of Last or Intended Future Permanent Residence

Country	Immigrants ¹				Emigrants			
	1936	1937	1938	1939	1936	1937	1938	1939
All countries.....	36,329	50,244	67,895	82,998	35,817	26,736	25,210	26,651
Europe.....	23,480	31,863	44,495	63,138	19,667	14,258	13,185	13,770
Albania.....	224	222	254	229	65	24	46	31
Belgium.....	276	307	478	683	193	122	129	121
Bulgaria.....	91	93	123	129	70	35	26	36
Czechoslovakia.....	1,052	1,912	3,203	2,896	459	269	224	145
Denmark.....	162	203	366	306	232	266	223	199
Estonia.....	33	29	46	93	36	33	18	17
Finland.....	76	218	421	411	297	262	267	197
France.....	812	1,018	1,475	1,907	782	570	477	469
Germany.....	6,346	10,895	17,199	33,515	3,672	2,340	2,270	4,211
Austria.....	677	480			147	105		
Great Britain:								
England.....	1,028	1,377	1,890	2,739	2,862	2,276	2,034	1,639
Scotland.....	254	309	338	277	1,389	1,075	892	651
Wales.....	28	40	34	42	90	110	65	47
Greece.....	863	875	1,009	907	807	374	460	470
Hungary.....	559	739	973	1,348	216	149	119	124
Ireland (Eire).....	328	412	914	1,101	1,107	795	652	676
Italy.....	6,774	7,192	7,712	6,570	2,064	1,726	1,788	1,829
Latvia.....	58	92	125	168	33	15	20	18
Lithuania.....	129	193	305	290	95	105	99	43
Netherlands.....	342	646	698	1,259	216	234	209	165
Northern Ireland.....	116	119	171	88	245	242	168	158
Norway.....	287	427	635	527	617	580	506	455
Poland.....	869	1,212	2,403	3,072	442	422	400	315
Portugal.....	313	301	374	422	599	186	187	283
Rumania.....	244	349	346	421	277	180	152	126
Soviet Union.....	82	97	63	59	172	197	108	112
Spain.....	299	315	379	257	665	256	132	133
Sweden.....	196	341	385	342	1,085	731	976	557
Switzerland.....	266	462	617	1,237	235	160	171	163
Yugoslavia.....	435	632	1,019	1,090	425	335	290	302
Other Europe.....	261	356	540	753	73	84	77	78
Asia.....	721	1,065	2,376	2,162	2,979	2,826	1,665	1,627
China.....	273	293	613	642	1,648	1,808	672	524
Japan.....	91	132	93	102	851	763	726	804
Palestine.....	180	369	1,291	1,066	145	60	70	62
Syria.....	93	136	227	207	53	31	47	42
Other Asia.....	84	135	152	145	282	164	150	195
America.....	11,786	16,903	20,486	17,139	10,409	7,385	8,095	8,954
Canada.....	8,018	11,799	14,070	10,501	1,272	1,027	1,018	965
Newfoundland.....	103	212	334	312	88	82	58	69
Mexico.....	1,716	2,347	2,502	2,640	5,218	3,745	3,667	5,117
West Indies.....	985	1,322	2,110	2,231	1,788	1,379	1,919	1,453
Central America.....	470	484	582	530	465	376	453	425
South America.....	492	738	885	915	1,576	745	980	922
Other America.....	2	1	3	10	2	1		3
Africa.....	105	155	174	218	109	138	97	101
Australia.....	118	106	179	159	115	142	88	66
New Zealand.....	29	39	49	54	39	32	39	23
Philippine Islands.....	72	84	116	119	2,472	1,980	2,020	2,090
Pacific Islands.....	18	29	20	9	27	5	21	20

¹ Includes not only quota immigrants but also nonquota immigrants (wives of citizens, husbands who married citizen wives prior to July 1, 1932, children of citizens, etc.).

As indicated in table 3, the number of immigrant aliens of the professional classes admitted in the fiscal year 1939 was 7,225—an increase of 5,516 over the number of emigrant professional aliens departed in that period, while in the same year the number of admitted commercial alien immigrants (10,268) exceeded the departed alien emigrants in the same occupational group by 9,088. Although 10,231 skilled alien immigrants were admitted in the year under discussion, the departures of skilled alien emigrants totaled 3,508, and in the group of alien laborers the emigrants departed numbered 7,229 as compared to 2,270 immigrants admitted. Of the 27,345 immigrants 38 years of age and over admitted in the last fiscal year, three-fifths were 45 years of age and over.

TABLE 3.—*Immigrant Aliens Admitted and Emigrant Aliens Departed, Fiscal Years 1936 to 1939, by Principal Occupations, Sex, and Age Groups*

Occupation, sex, and age	Immigrant				Emigrant			
	1936	1937	1938	1939	1936	1937	1938	1939
Total.....	36,329	50,244	67,895	82,998	35,817	26,736	25,210	26,651
<i>Occupation</i>								
Professions.....	2,588	4,162	5,463	7,225	1,825	1,426	1,502	1,709
Commercial.....	1,904	3,655	5,813	10,268	1,819	1,322	1,121	1,180
Skilled.....	3,936	6,007	8,607	10,231	4,195	3,211	3,220	3,508
Servants.....	1,944	3,213	5,919	5,420	2,770	2,046	1,700	1,528
Laborers.....	1,420	2,118	2,817	2,270	9,285	6,801	6,606	7,229
Miscellaneous.....	1,547	2,292	3,264	3,110	1,860	1,419	1,162	1,409
No occupation ¹	22,990	28,797	36,012	44,474	14,063	10,511	9,899	10,088
<i>Sex</i>								
Males.....	14,776	21,664	29,959	39,423	21,778	16,434	15,417	16,600
Females.....	21,553	28,580	37,936	43,575	14,039	10,302	9,793	10,051
Includes alien wives of United States citizens.....	4,712	4,879	5,347	3,759				
<i>Age group</i>								
Under 16 years.....	6,925	8,326	10,181	12,204	2,650	1,927	1,609	1,381
16 to 21 years.....	4,923	6,998	10,017	10,281	1,661	1,173	1,096	1,502
22 to 29 years.....	8,634	12,590	16,912	16,874	6,731	4,480	4,007	4,072
30 to 37 years.....	6,651	9,475	13,076	16,294	8,743	6,346	6,032	6,030
38 to 44 years.....	3,183	4,844	7,063	10,786	5,347	4,070	3,913	4,443
45 years and over.....	6,013	8,011	10,646	16,559	10,685	8,740	8,553	9,223

¹ Includes many women and children and aliens of advanced age.

Deportations

During the year ended June 30, 1939, the number of enforced alien departures was 17,792, of which 8,202 were under warrants of deportation and 9,590 were cases in which the persons were adjudged deportable but were permitted to leave the United States at their own expense without warrant of deportation. The principal classes of deportations, 1935-39, are recorded in table 4.

TABLE 4.—*Aliens Deported from the United States, Years Ended June 30, 1935 to 1939, by Principal Classes*

Classes	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939	Total
All classes.....	8,319	9,195	8,829	9,275	8,202	43,820
Criminals.....	1,632	1,727	1,603	1,662	1,638	8,262
Violators of narcotic laws.....	111	154	118	81	82	546
Anarchists and kindred classes.....	17	47	17	8	1	90
Immoral classes.....	413	407	308	318	270	1,716
Mental or physical defectives.....	510	533	392	401	326	2,162
Previously debarred or deported.....	933	1,048	1,000	1,085	1,056	5,122
Remained longer than authorized.....	786	850	702	748	652	3,738
Entered without valid visa.....	2,824	3,181	3,294	3,545	3,080	15,924
Unable to read (over 16 years of age).....	416	502	550	676	453	2,597
Under Chinese Exclusion Act.....	77	53	47	30	21	228
Likely to become public charges.....	33	50	40	24	22	169
Miscellaneous.....	567	643	758	697	601	3,266

Of the aliens deported in the fiscal year 1939, 53.8 percent were returned to Mexico; 23.4 percent to Canada; 16.1 percent to Europe; 2.6 percent to Asia; and 4.1 percent to other countries.

Inspection and Border Patrol

In the report under review emphasis is given to the great importance and immense volume of work of immigrant inspectors on the land border, the number of individual entries in 1938-39 totaling 51,363,952.¹ Of this number, 14,141,028 were alien entries and 14,490,747, citizen entries from Canada and 14,717,308 alien entries and 8,014,869 citizen entries from Mexico.

During the year ended June 30, 1939, 7,824,733 miles were patrolled by the Immigration Border Patrol, over 400,000 more miles than in the preceding 12 months. In the effort to prevent smuggling and the illegal entry of aliens, 1,012,242 persons were questioned in that year—an increase of 69,257 over 1938—and 12,685 violators of the law were apprehended. Conditions abroad always affect the border patrol problem, and without doubt "aliens whose presence in this country would be inimical to its best interests will endeavor to enter surreptitiously, particularly over the southern border."

Naturalization

During the fiscal year 1939 the number of aliens admitted to citizenship was 188,813 as compared with 162,078 in 1938. Petitions for naturalization in 1939 were denied by the courts in 5,630 cases. In the same year 155,691 aliens filed declarations of intention.

The number and percentage of aliens naturalized in the United States during the fiscal years 1923 to 1939, inclusive, by country of origin or nationality are given in table 5. The highest proportions of

¹ Every time a person crosses the land border to come into the United States whether he is an alien or a citizen such crossing is reported as an individual entry.

naturalized citizens were reported from the British Empire, 21.2 percent; Italy, 17.6 percent; Poland, 13.6 percent; Germany (Austria), 11.1 percent; and the Soviet Union, 7.6 percent.

TABLE 5.—*Aliens Naturalized in the United States in Years Ending June 30, 1923 to 1939, Inclusive*

Country	Aliens naturalized		Country	Aliens naturalized	
	Number	Per-cent		Number	Per-cent
All countries.....	2,704,650	100.0	Mexico.....	6,652	0.2
Belgium.....	12,866	.4	Netherlands.....	25,314	.9
British Empire.....	572,355	21.2	Norway.....	43,083	1.6
Bulgaria.....	3,457	.1	Poland.....	366,489	13.6
Czechoslovakia.....	105,001	3.9	Portugal.....	15,654	.6
Denmark.....	25,509	.9	Rumania.....	53,183	2.0
Finland.....	21,965	.8	Soviet Union.....	205,317	7.6
France.....	18,470	.7	Spain.....	12,572	.4
Germany (Austria).....	298,870	11.1	Sweden.....	71,522	2.6
Greece.....	67,562	2.5	Switzerland.....	20,984	.8
Hungary.....	63,809	2.4	Turkey.....	39,601	1.5
Italy.....	475,106	17.6	Yugoslavia.....	70,195	2.6
Lithuania.....	27,196	1.0	Central and South America.....	6,609	.2
			All other.....	75,246	2.8

According to the 1930 census, 6,234,613 foreign-born residents of the United States were not reported naturalized. From April 1 of that year to the close of the fiscal year 1939—a period of 9 years and 3 months—the following changes are estimated by the Immigration and Naturalization Service to have taken place:

1930 census figure of aliens in the United States not reported naturalized.....	6,234,613
Decrease since April 1, 1930:	
Naturalized.....	1,329,128
Derivatives.....	252,100
Immigrant children of citizens.....	17,843
Excess of nonemigrant departures over nonimmigrant arrivals (150,635), less excess of immigrants over emigrants (72,369) ..	78,266
Deaths.....	929,173
Total decrease.....	2,606,510
Estimated alien population as of July 1, 1939 ¹	3,628,103

¹ Does not include aliens illegally in the United States.

It is further estimated by the same Service that at least 725,000 valid unexpired declarations of intention were pending on July 1, 1939, filed by resident aliens aspiring to become citizens of the United States.

Minimum Wages and Maximum Hours

MODIFIED INTERPRETATION OF COVERAGE OF WAGE AND HOUR ACT

EMPLOYEES producing goods which do not move in interstate commerce themselves, but which are used in the production of goods for interstate commerce, are subject to the terms of the Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938, it was announced by the Wage and Hour Division of the United States Department of Labor in November 1939.¹ In modifying the Division's interpretive bulletin (No. 5) dealing with coverage,² it was stated: "The legislative history indicates that the act was intended to apply to employees who make or create tools, dies, patterns, designs, or blueprints, all of which are sold within the State to a local purchaser who uses the tools, dies, patterns, designs, or blueprints in the production of goods which move in interstate commerce." The Division has issued a series of bulletins indicating the legal construction of the law as a guide to the Administrator, and in the revised bulletin additional clarifications are made, the most important of which are summarized below.

It was held that even when the goods of a producer are sold for intrastate use his employees may be subject to the wage and hour law. For example, a manufacturer of containers may sell within a particular State but the packer may sell goods in the containers in interstate commerce. Another example used is that of shoe boxes, the ultimate consumer of which is the person buying the shoes. However, if goods are shipped in boxes and the wholesaler or retailer in the State of destination removes the goods and destroys the boxes, the dealer is the ultimate consumer. Irrespective of which is the ultimate consumer, the interpretation states that the employee of the container manufacturer is subject to the act.

In determining which employees are subject to the provisions of the law, no distinction is made on the basis of the percentage of the goods made or of the goods the employee worked on which move in interstate commerce. Congress intended to exclude all goods produced under substandard conditions from interstate commerce. The bulletin states that "there is no justification for determining the

¹ United States Department of Labor. Wage and Hour Division. Press Release No. 512 and Interpretive Bulletin No. 5. (Revised edition.)

² For a summary of the terms of the original bulletin see Monthly Labor Review, January 1939 (p. 152).

applicability of the act to a particular employee on the basis of the percentage of goods he produces, or of his employer's goods, which move in interstate commerce." Although an employee may only spend part of his time in work covered by the law, he is subject to the wage and hour standards established under its terms for the entire workweek. However, he may be subject to the act one week and not the next, and employees of the same employer may be so covered while others are not. The employer is responsible for segregation between workweeks and between employees. If a certain employee is not accorded the benefits of the law during a particular week, the employer must show that he did not handle materials used in the production of goods for interstate commerce, did not clean machinery used in such production, nor assist in producing goods for such commerce.

In addition, cases arise in which employees producing goods for use entirely within a State can be said to be engaged in a "process or occupation necessary to the production" of other goods which move out of that State. For example, the bulletin states that this is true of the employees of a tool and die concern which sells all its products within the State for use by a producer of goods for interstate commerce. A much more doubtful case is that of the small mine, the product of which is sold to a local manufacturer who is producing goods which move in interstate commerce. No position is taken on this case. The Wage and Hour Division believes it "to be so clearly poised on the borderline between coverage and noncoverage" that opinion cannot be expressed on the meaning of the words "process or occupation necessary to the production of goods" until the courts have at least indicated the broad outlines of the meaning to be given to this phrase.

Wages and Hours of Labor

ANNUAL EARNINGS IN THE HOSIERY INDUSTRY¹

Summary

IN THE fall of 1938 the Bureau of Labor Statistics made a survey of earnings and hours in the full-fashioned and seamless hosiery industry, which covered average hourly earnings, weekly hours, and weekly earnings for a pay-roll period during September 1938.² In addition, the Bureau also obtained figures on annual earnings and number of pay-roll periods worked for the calendar year 1937.

In the full-fashioned branch of the hosiery industry, the average annual earnings in 1937 of employees who worked throughout the year amounted to \$1,328, as compared with \$1,264 for all who had employment for 40 weeks and over, \$1,198 for those who worked 26 weeks and over, and \$1,120 for all employees on the pay roll during any part of the year. The annual earnings in the seamless branch of the industry were considerably lower, the respective averages being \$772, \$674, \$643, and \$602. The differences in annual earnings between the two branches reflect largely the differences in hourly earnings.

These averages cover only wage earners on the pay roll of the establishments surveyed in September 1938, who were employed by the same plant for one or more pay-roll periods in 1937.

Scope and Method³

Annual data were obtained from most of the plants included in the survey of hourly earnings. The latter covered 105 establishments, with 26,807 wage earners, in the full-fashioned hosiery branch. Annual data were obtained from 78 of these plants. The coverage in this group of establishments included hourly earnings figures for 20,405 and annual data for 18,061 employees. In the seamless-hosiery branch, information on hourly earnings was obtained from

¹ Prepared by H. E. Riley and E. B. Morris, under the supervision of J. Perlman, of the Bureau's Division of Wage and Hour Statistics.

² See Monthly Labor Review, May and June 1939.

³ For a fuller description of the methods used by the Bureau in compiling annual data, see "Annual Earnings in the Manufacture of Electrical Products, 1936" in Monthly Labor Review, October 1939.

97 establishments, covering 18,270 wage earners. Annual data were secured from 75 of these plants; their workers scheduled totaled 14,277, of whom 12,413 were included in the annual data.

Although annual data could not be obtained from the entire list of plants originally included in the hosiery sample, the establishments for which figures were obtained were fairly representative of the industry with respect to geographical location, size of establishment, size of community, unionization, and other factors. Hence, it is safe to assume that the data shown here present a fair picture of the annual earnings in the entire hosiery industry during 1937.

Owing to the fact that the figures were obtained from employers' records, they cover only the total earnings and number of pay-roll periods in 1937 of each wage earner in the plant in which he worked during September 1938. Hence, the annual figures do not include any earnings of an individual in other establishments in which he may have worked during 1937.

In accordance with the procedure followed in other surveys, the wage earners for whom annual data were secured have been classified into the following groups, including those who were on the pay roll during (1) 52 weeks, (2) 40 weeks or more, (3) 26 weeks or more, and (4) any part of the year; thus each group contains all the workers included in the preceding group.

The annual earnings of workers are obviously affected by the general level of activity and the amount of seasonality in the industry in which they are employed. The monthly index numbers of employment and pay rolls compiled by the Bureau indicate that the hosiery industry was not greatly affected by seasonality during 1937. Moreover, an examination of the annual index numbers shows that the industry employed on the average more workers throughout 1937 than in any previous year for which data are available, while the annual index number of weekly pay rolls in 1937 reached the highest level of any year except 1929.

Annual figures were collected only for those workers on the pay rolls in 1937 who were still employed by the same establishment during September 1938. This coverage in the full-fashioned branch included 88.5 percent of all workers scheduled in the plants from which annual data were secured. The corresponding figure in the seamless branch was 86.9 percent. Wage earners, who were employed by the establishment during any part of 1937 but had left its employ prior to September 1938, were excluded. Experimental computations indicated, however, that if all employees working in 1937 had been included, the results would not have differed materially from those shown in this report.

Full-Fashioned Hosiery

VARIATIONS BY SEX, SKILL, AND REGION

Table 1 shows the average annual earnings of workers in full-fashioned hosiery plants by region, skill, and sex.

TABLE 1.—Average Annual Earnings of Full-Fashioned Hosiery Workers, by Region, Skill, and Sex, 1937

Region, and skill of workers	Employees whose work extended over—											
	52 weeks			40 weeks and over			26 weeks and over			Any part of the year		
	Total	Males	Fe-males	Total	Males	Fe-males	Total	Males	Fe-males	Total	Males	Fe-males
Average annual earnings												
United States.....	\$1,328	\$1,717	\$946	\$1,264	\$1,664	\$906	\$1,198	\$1,582	\$859	\$1,120	\$1,490	\$799
Skilled.....	1,513	1,973	1,008	1,436	1,888	965	1,369	1,816	916	1,297	1,743	859
Semiskilled.....	976	1,099	876	909	1,039	833	852	948	792	783	859	734
Unskilled.....	799	895	736	765	842	709	713	795	658	640	710	592
North.....	1,383	1,778	973	1,288	1,685	923	1,220	1,596	876	1,154	1,517	826
Skilled.....	1,630	2,099	1,075	1,478	1,924	996	1,407	1,837	948	1,349	1,778	902
Semiskilled.....	996	1,118	878	922	1,058	838	861	961	794	797	879	742
Unskilled.....	797	968	703	775	879	704	728	841	657	666	765	602
South.....	1,248	1,623	910	1,205	1,608	864	1,138	1,543	815	1,031	1,414	735
Skilled.....	1,367	1,802	930	1,338	1,798	894	1,276	1,760	843	1,171	1,648	765
Semiskilled.....	935	1,047	873	868	971	819	824	896	787	740	789	714
Unskilled.....	802	781	822	734	743	727	668	678	660	573	582	565
Percent of workers												
United States.....	33.0	35.3	31.1	80.1	81.7	78.8	91.7	92.7	90.8	100.0	100.0	100.0
Skilled.....	33.1	35.0	31.3	82.1	84.6	79.6	93.2	94.7	91.7	100.0	100.0	100.0
Semiskilled.....	34.3	39.1	31.2	77.3	72.8	80.1	89.3	88.0	90.2	100.0	100.0	100.0
Unskilled.....	29.7	28.9	30.2	73.1	75.4	71.5	86.6	85.9	87.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
North.....	27.2	29.2	25.4	80.1	80.8	79.5	92.9	93.7	92.2	100.0	100.0	100.0
Skilled.....	26.1	27.7	24.4	81.7	83.1	80.1	94.5	95.7	93.4	100.0	100.0	100.0
Semiskilled.....	30.3	36.5	26.0	77.3	73.1	80.1	90.2	89.1	90.9	100.0	100.0	100.0
Unskilled.....	27.7	25.0	29.5	76.2	78.5	74.8	88.5	87.7	89.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
South.....	47.9	52.0	44.7	80.3	84.2	77.2	88.6	90.0	87.4	100.0	100.0	100.0
Skilled.....	49.9	54.5	46.1	83.1	88.7	78.4	90.0	92.3	88.1	100.0	100.0	100.0
Semiskilled.....	46.9	48.5	46.1	77.3	71.9	80.2	86.7	84.1	88.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Unskilled.....	34.8	38.2	32.0	64.8	68.2	62.2	81.5	81.6	81.5	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number of workers												
United States.....	5,969	2,955	3,014	14,475	6,844	7,631	16,562	7,772	8,790	18,061	8,381	9,680
Skilled.....	4,086	2,140	1,946	10,123	5,169	4,954	11,494	5,786	5,708	12,332	6,107	6,225
Semiskilled.....	1,351	604	747	3,041	1,125	1,916	3,516	1,360	2,156	3,936	1,545	2,391
Unskilled.....	532	211	321	1,311	550	761	1,552	626	926	1,793	729	1,064
North.....	3,536	1,802	1,734	10,399	4,977	5,422	12,064	5,775	6,289	12,982	6,163	6,819
Skilled.....	2,274	1,232	1,042	7,107	3,690	3,417	8,228	4,247	3,981	8,704	4,440	4,264
Semiskilled.....	901	442	459	2,300	885	1,415	2,685	1,079	1,606	2,977	1,211	1,766
Unskilled.....	361	128	233	992	402	590	1,151	449	702	1,301	512	789
South.....	2,433	1,153	1,280	4,076	1,867	2,209	4,498	1,997	2,501	5,079	2,218	2,861
Skilled.....	1,812	908	904	3,016	1,479	1,537	3,266	1,539	1,727	3,628	1,667	1,961
Semiskilled.....	450	162	288	741	240	501	831	281	550	950	334	625
Unskilled.....	171	83	88	319	148	171	401	177	224	492	217	275

The average annual earnings were higher for males than females. With one exception, this was true in each region and for each skill group. The exception was found in the case of unskilled workers employed throughout the year in the South; among them females averaged \$41 more than males. The differences were especially pronounced for skilled workers. Furthermore, for identical groups of employees, the differences were generally greater in the northern than the southern region.

Among males, the difference in the annual earnings of skilled and semiskilled workers was much greater than the difference between the semiskilled and unskilled groups. In the country as a whole, the average annual earnings for all skilled males who were employed throughout the year amounted to \$1,973, which was \$874 more than the average for semiskilled males (\$1,099). The average of the latter group, however, exceeded that of unskilled males by only \$204. In the northern region, the annual earnings of the skilled and semiskilled males who were employed throughout the year differed by \$981. The difference in southern establishments amounted to \$755. The average annual earnings of semiskilled males exceeded the average for unskilled males by \$150 in the North and \$266 in the South. These relationships between the skill groups are also typical of the averages including the earnings of males whose work extended over shorter periods.

For females, on the other hand, the differences between the annual earnings of skilled and semiskilled employees were no more pronounced than the differences between the semiskilled and unskilled workers. Taking the country as a whole, the average annual earnings of skilled females who were employed throughout the year amounted to \$1,008. This was \$132 more than the average (\$876) for semiskilled females, which in turn was \$140 greater than that of unskilled females. Among those who were employed during 52 weeks in northern establishments, the skilled workers averaged \$197 more than the semiskilled, while the latter group received \$175 more than the unskilled. In the southern plants, the respective differences were \$57 and \$51.

For most of the skill-sex groups, average annual earnings were higher in the North than the South. For example, the skilled males who were employed throughout the year averaged \$2,099 in the northern and \$1,802 in the southern establishments. The respective averages for skilled females were \$1,075 and \$930. The only exceptions were found among unskilled females, who generally averaged more in the southern than in northern plants.

Distributions of workers according to annual earnings, by region and sex, are shown in table 2.

TABLE 2.—Percentage Distribution of Full-Fashioned Hosiery Workers by Annual Earnings, Region and Sex, 1937

Annual earnings	Percent of employees whose work extended over—											
	52 weeks			40 weeks and over			26 weeks and over			Any part of the year		
	Total	Males	Fe-males	Total	Males	Fe-males	Total	Males	Fe-males	Total	Males	Fe-males
<i>United States</i>												
Under \$200				(¹)		(¹)	0.2	0.2	0.2	4.3	3.3	5.1
\$200 and under \$400	0.2	0.1	0.3	0.6	0.2	0.9	3.1	1.5	4.6	5.6	3.4	7.5
\$400 and under \$600	4.0	1.5	6.5	7.0	2.9	10.7	9.3	5.0	13.1	9.5	5.8	12.6
\$600 and under \$800	14.8	6.8	22.7	17.3	7.9	25.7	17.6	8.0	26.1	16.3	7.9	23.8
\$800 and under \$1,000	19.8	8.1	30.9	19.0	7.7	29.0	17.7	7.8	26.5	16.3	7.5	24.2
\$1,000 and under \$1,200	16.7	9.0	24.3	14.8	9.0	20.0	13.9	9.8	17.5	12.8	9.1	15.9
\$1,200 and under \$1,400	10.2	9.4	10.9	9.6	9.6	9.5	9.3	10.2	8.3	8.5	9.7	7.5
\$1,400 and under \$1,600	5.8	8.5	3.1	5.9	9.1	3.0	5.6	9.1	2.6	5.2	8.4	2.4
\$1,600 and under \$1,800	5.7	10.4	1.0	5.2	10.0	1.0	4.9	9.6	.9	4.5	8.9	.8
\$1,800 and under \$2,000	5.6	11.1	.2	5.6	11.6	.2	5.1	10.5	.2	4.7	9.8	.2
\$2,000 and under \$2,200	6.2	12.4	.1	5.4	11.4	(¹)	4.8	10.1	(¹)	4.4	9.4	(¹)
\$2,200 and under \$2,400	3.8	7.6		3.3	7.0	(¹)	2.9	6.2	(¹)	2.7	5.7	(¹)
\$2,400 and under \$2,600	3.0	6.0		2.6	5.5		2.3	4.9		2.1	4.5	
\$2,600 and under \$2,800	2.2	4.4		1.9	4.1		1.7	3.6		1.6	3.3	
\$2,800 and under \$3,200	1.4	2.9		1.2	2.7		1.1	2.4		1.0	2.2	
\$3,200 and over	.8	1.8		.6	1.3		.5	1.1		.5	1.1	
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number of workers	5,969	2,955	3,014	14,475	6,844	7,631	16,562	7,772	8,790	18,061	8,381	9,680
<i>North</i>												
Under \$200				(¹)		(¹)	0.1	(¹)	0.1	3.0	2.1	3.8
\$200 and under \$400	0.2	0.1	0.4	0.4	0.1	0.7	2.4	1.2	3.5	4.9	3.2	6.4
\$400 and under \$600	4.2	1.3	7.2	7.1	2.7	11.1	9.5	4.8	13.8	9.8	5.8	13.5
\$600 and under \$800	12.7	6.0	19.7	16.0	7.3	23.9	16.9	7.5	25.5	15.9	7.5	23.6
\$800 and under \$1,000	17.4	8.1	27.3	17.7	7.4	27.4	16.9	7.6	25.2	15.7	7.4	23.3
\$1,000 and under \$1,200	17.7	9.4	26.0	15.1	9.1	20.6	14.2	10.2	17.9	13.3	9.7	16.5
\$1,200 and under \$1,400	11.6	9.0	14.1	10.7	10.1	11.2	10.3	11.2	9.6	9.6	10.3	9.9
\$1,400 and under \$1,600	5.4	7.2	3.6	6.2	9.0	3.5	6.0	9.2	3.1	5.6	8.6	2.8
\$1,600 and under \$1,800	5.2	8.8	1.4	5.3	9.8	1.2	5.1	9.4	1.1	4.7	8.8	1.0
\$1,800 and under \$2,000	5.3	10.3	.2	5.8	11.9	.3	5.2	10.6	.2	4.8	9.9	.2
\$2,000 and under \$2,200	6.7	13.0	.1	5.4	11.3	(¹)	4.7	9.9	(¹)	4.4	9.3	(¹)
\$2,200 and under \$2,400	4.2	8.3		3.3	6.9	.1	2.9	5.9	(¹)	2.7	5.6	(¹)
\$2,400 and under \$2,600	3.3	6.4		2.6	5.4		2.2	4.7		2.1	4.4	
\$2,600 and under \$2,800	2.9	5.6		2.1	4.3		1.8	3.8		1.7	3.5	
\$2,800 and under \$3,200	2.0	4.0		1.5	3.1		1.2	2.7		1.2	2.6	
\$3,200 and over	1.2	2.5		.8	1.6		.6	1.3		.6	1.3	
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number of workers	3,536	1,802	1,734	10,309	4,977	5,422	12,064	5,775	6,289	12,982	6,163	6,819
<i>South</i>												
Under \$200				(¹)		(¹)	0.5	0.6	0.4	7.6	6.5	8.4
\$200 and under \$400	0.2	0.3	0.2	1.0	0.6	1.4	5.0	2.2	7.3	7.5	3.9	10.3
\$400 and under \$600	3.8	1.9	5.5	6.8	3.5	9.7	8.8	5.4	11.6	8.5	5.8	10.6
\$600 and under \$800	17.8	7.9	26.7	20.5	9.4	29.9	19.7	9.5	27.8	17.7	9.0	24.4
\$800 and under \$1,000	23.0	8.2	36.3	21.7	8.3	33.0	20.2	8.1	29.7	17.9	7.6	26.0
\$1,000 and under \$1,200	15.5	8.4	21.9	13.9	8.6	18.4	12.9	8.5	16.5	11.5	7.7	14.4
\$1,200 and under \$1,400	8.3	10.1	6.6	6.8	8.2	5.5	6.3	8.1	4.9	5.7	7.5	4.3
\$1,400 and under \$1,600	6.2	10.6	2.3	5.2	9.3	1.7	4.7	8.7	1.5	4.2	7.9	1.3
\$1,600 and under \$1,800	6.3	12.8	.4	5.0	10.6	.4	4.6	10.0	.3	4.1	9.1	.3
\$1,800 and under \$2,000	5.9	12.3	.1	5.2	11.2	(¹)	4.7	10.5	(¹)	4.2	9.5	(¹)
\$2,000 and under \$2,200	5.4	11.4		5.4	11.8		4.9	10.9		4.3	9.9	
\$2,200 and under \$2,400	3.1	6.5		3.4	7.3		3.0	6.9		2.7	6.2	
\$2,400 and under \$2,600	2.5	5.3		2.6	5.7		2.4	5.3		2.1	4.8	
\$2,600 and under \$2,800	1.2	2.5		1.5	3.4		1.4	3.2		1.2	2.8	
\$2,800 and under \$3,200	.5	1.1		.7	1.5		.6	1.5		.6	1.4	
\$3,200 and over	.3	.7		.3	.6		.3	.6		.2	.4	
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number of workers	2,433	1,153	1,280	4,076	1,867	2,209	4,498	1,997	2,501	5,079	2,218	2,861

¹ Less than a tenth of 1 percent.

OCCUPATIONAL DIFFERENCES

Average annual earnings on an occupational basis are of limited value, because of the likelihood that the employee may have shifted from one job to another after the beginning of the year for which annual data were obtained. The occupational information secured in the survey shows each worker's occupational status in September 1938, although the annual earnings figures relate to the calendar year 1937. The tendency to change occupations was probably much less pronounced among the skilled than among the semiskilled and unskilled workers. For this reason, occupational comparisons of annual earnings have been confined to the skilled employees. Table 3 presents average annual earnings for a selected group of skilled occupations.

TABLE 3.—Average Annual Earnings of Full-Fashioned Hosiery Workers in Selected Skilled Occupations, 1937

Sex, occupational class, and region	Employees whose work extended over—							
	52 weeks		40 weeks and over		26 weeks and over		Any part of the year	
	Number of employees	Average annual earnings	Number of employees	Average annual earnings	Number of employees	Average annual earnings	Number of employees	Average annual earnings
Males								
Foremen, working.....	79	\$2, 414	100	\$2, 363	100	\$2, 363	101	\$2, 352
North.....	55	2, 383	75	2, 330	75	2, 330	75	2, 330
South.....	24	2, 484	25	2, 462	25	2, 462	26	2, 415
Knitters, footer.....	512	2, 018	1, 149	2, 020	1, 292	1, 939	1, 350	1, 873
North.....	299	2, 192	814	2, 114	948	2, 001	979	1, 953
South.....	213	1, 775	335	1, 789	344	1, 770	371	1, 664
Knitters, legger.....	1, 285	1, 899	3, 423	1, 844	3, 852	1, 776	4, 079	1, 701
North.....	707	2, 022	2, 410	1, 876	2, 795	1, 795	2, 934	1, 735
South.....	578	1, 749	1, 013	1, 769	1, 057	1, 728	1, 145	1, 614
Knitters, single unit.....	17	(¹)	51	2, 455	54	2, 348	64	2, 050
North.....	11	(¹)	42	2, 759	45	2, 611	55	2, 216
South.....	6	(¹)	9	(¹)	9	(¹)	9	(¹)
Machine fixers.....	150	2, 469	194	2, 332	200	2, 302	200	2, 302
North.....	84	2, 600	124	2, 356	130	2, 309	130	2, 309
South.....	66	2, 302	70	2, 290	70	2, 290	70	2, 290
Toppers.....	23	1, 060	120	923	142	875	163	801
North.....	15	(¹)	109	903	127	853	140	790
South.....	8	(¹)	11	(¹)	15	(¹)	23	866
Females								
Foreladies, working.....	25	1, 352	37	1, 363	37	1, 363	38	1, 341
North.....	11	(¹)	22	1, 490	22	1, 490	23	1, 448
South.....	14	(¹)	15	(¹)	15	(¹)	15	(¹)
Knitters, miscellaneous.....	35	1, 161	50	1, 008	65	900	76	816
North.....	21	1, 293	32	1, 046	40	930	41	914
South.....	14	(¹)	18	(¹)	25	851	35	702
Loopers.....	378	1, 021	989	970	1, 096	933	1, 176	887
North.....	195	1, 049	687	980	766	944	801	915
South.....	183	992	302	948	330	909	375	828
Menders.....	193	944	450	870	528	829	593	759
North.....	130	985	344	886	410	846	449	790
South.....	63	859	106	819	118	772	144	663
Seamers.....	516	993	1, 310	928	1, 476	886	1, 600	834
North.....	282	1, 064	887	960	997	922	1, 056	885
South.....	234	908	423	861	479	809	544	734
Toppers.....	799	1, 009	2, 118	997	2, 506	939	2, 742	878
North.....	403	1, 100	1, 445	1, 044	1, 746	982	1, 894	926
South.....	396	916	673	895	760	841	848	770

¹ Number of workers not sufficient to permit presentation of an average.

It will be observed that there are substantial differences in annual earnings among the several occupations for which averages are shown. These variations result from differences in number of weeks worked, number of hours worked per week, and average hourly earnings. In general, the average annual earnings are most closely related to average hourly earnings. Among the workers employed throughout the year, for example, the male machine fixers, working foremen, and footer knitters, who had the highest annual earnings, also received the highest average hourly earnings. The ranking of these occupations, however, differ with respect to annual and hourly earnings. In annual earnings, machine fixers rank first, working foremen second, and footer knitters last. The footer knitters, on the other hand, rank first in hourly earnings, followed by machine fixers and working foremen. These differences are due to variations in the number of hours worked per week by the different occupational groups.⁴

DIFFERENCES BETWEEN UNION AND NONUNION PLANTS

Average annual earnings differed considerably between the union and nonunion plants in the full-fashioned hosiery industry. Any comparison on this basis must be confined to the North, however, as little unionization existed among southern mills at the time of the survey. Of the 58 northern plants supplying annual data, 39 had agreements with labor organizations. The coverage included 8,239 employees in union and 4,743 workers in nonunion establishments.

Among the males in northern mills, the average annual earnings of skilled workers who were employed full time amounted to \$2,162 in union establishments, as compared with \$1,973 in nonunion plants. For the semiskilled male full-time workers, on the other hand, the average was higher in nonunion than in union establishments, the respective figures being \$1,140 and \$1,074. The unskilled males also had higher annual earnings in nonunion than union plants (\$985 as against \$936).

The same situation existed for wage earners who were employed during 40 weeks or more. Among skilled males, the average annual earnings amounted to \$1,958 in union, as compared with \$1,863 in nonunion mills. For both the semiskilled and unskilled groups, however, the annual earnings were higher in nonunion than union establishments, the respective averages being \$1,107 and \$998 for semiskilled and \$896 and \$849 for unskilled males.

Skilled females who were employed full time averaged \$1,117 in union, as against \$992 in nonunion plants. The respective averages

⁴ See table of occupational averages shown in *Monthly Labor Review*, May 1939 (pp. 1158-1159).

for semiskilled females were \$901 and \$845. For unskilled females, on the other hand, the average was substantially higher in nonunion than in union mills, the averages amounting to \$766 for the former and \$649 for the latter.

Among females who were employed during 40 weeks and over, the skilled workers averaged \$1,009 in union, which may be compared with \$973 in nonunion plants. The respective averages for semiskilled females were \$864 and \$801. For unskilled females, however, the average was \$670 in union, as against \$745 in nonunion establishments.

The lower annual earnings shown for semiskilled males and both male and female unskilled workers in the union, as compared with nonunion mills, are due principally to the short workweek required by agreements in the union plants. The skilled workers and semiskilled females received sufficiently higher hourly earnings in the union than nonunion establishments, however, to overcome the effect of the short workweek in the union mills.

Seamless Hosiery

The average annual earnings of workers in seamless hosiery establishments are shown in table 4.

As in the full-fashioned branch, substantial differences were found between average annual earnings of males and females in seamless-hosiery plants. These differences were generally larger among semiskilled than unskilled workers. The differences were also greater in northern than southern establishments.

Average annual earnings generally varied considerably with the skill of the workers. For example, the average of all skilled males whose work extended over 52 weeks was \$1,445. This was \$623 more than the average (\$822) received by the semiskilled males in the same group. The unskilled males averaged \$789, or only \$33 less than the annual earnings of the semiskilled men. Among the males employed full time in northern establishments, the skilled workers averaged \$1,534, as against \$1,087 for semiskilled and \$980 for unskilled men. In the southern region, the respective averages were \$1,398, \$718, and \$722. It will be observed that the annual earnings of semiskilled males in this instance were slightly less than those of the unskilled. A comparison of the averages, including the earnings of males whose work extended over shorter periods of time, shows that in each instance the unskilled workers had the lowest and the skilled employees the highest annual earnings.

TABLE 4.—Average Annual Earnings of Seamless-Hosiery Workers, by Region, Skill, and Sex, 1937

Region, and skill of workers	Employees whose work extended over—											
	52 weeks			40 weeks and over			26 weeks and over			Any part of the year		
	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females
Average annual earnings												
United States.....	\$772	\$994	\$641	\$674	\$899	\$571	\$643	\$867	\$545	\$602	\$811	\$511
Skilled.....	1,445	1,445	—	1,381	1,381	—	1,368	1,368	—	1,325	1,325	—
Semiskilled ¹	702	822	648	621	745	576	592	717	548	557	670	517
Unskilled.....	658	789	615	586	702	555	564	674	534	511	603	486
North.....	878	1,223	716	800	1,148	674	764	1,106	644	733	1,080	616
Skilled.....	1,534	1,534	—	1,504	1,504	—	1,491	1,491	—	1,481	1,481	—
Semiskilled ¹	812	1,087	723	748	1,008	679	714	970	649	689	950	625
Unskilled.....	751	980	690	693	904	649	665	848	625	618	790	580
South.....	716	897	595	620	815	524	592	785	499	548	725	463
Skilled.....	1,398	1,398	—	1,326	1,326	—	1,313	1,313	—	1,259	1,259	—
Semiskilled ¹	642	718	601	566	663	526	539	638	499	502	589	467
Unskilled.....	617	722	579	546	644	518	526	620	499	473	549	451
Percent of workers												
United States.....	41.9	51.3	37.8	83.4	85.9	82.3	91.9	92.1	91.8	100.0	100.0	100.0
Skilled.....	63.4	63.4	—	94.1	94.1	—	95.9	95.9	—	100.0	100.0	—
Semiskilled ¹	39.6	47.3	37.0	83.1	84.4	82.6	92.4	91.8	92.6	100.0	100.0	100.0
Unskilled.....	42.6	49.6	40.7	80.7	79.2	81.1	88.3	87.0	88.7	100.0	100.0	100.0
North.....	49.9	63.1	45.4	85.5	90.1	83.9	94.8	97.0	94.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Skilled.....	74.2	74.2	—	97.3	97.3	—	99.2	99.2	—	100.0	100.0	—
Semiskilled ¹	47.6	59.0	44.7	85.2	89.1	84.2	95.3	97.2	94.8	100.0	100.0	100.0
Unskilled.....	49.8	57.5	48.1	82.1	78.8	82.8	90.9	91.2	90.8	100.0	100.0	100.0
South.....	38.6	47.5	34.3	82.5	84.6	81.5	90.7	90.5	90.8	100.0	100.0	100.0
Skilled.....	58.8	58.8	—	92.7	92.7	—	94.5	94.5	—	100.0	100.0	—
Semiskilled ¹	36.3	43.9	33.3	82.2	83.1	81.9	91.2	90.2	91.6	100.0	100.0	100.0
Unskilled.....	40.1	47.3	37.9	80.2	79.4	80.5	87.4	85.8	87.9	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number of workers												
United States.....	5,197	1,930	3,267	10,352	3,235	7,117	11,403	3,466	7,937	12,413	3,764	8,649
Skilled.....	546	546	—	810	810	—	826	826	—	861	861	—
Semiskilled ¹	3,645	1,133	2,512	7,638	2,024	5,614	8,493	2,200	6,293	9,193	2,397	6,796
Unskilled.....	1,006	251	755	1,904	401	1,503	2,084	440	1,644	2,359	506	1,853
North.....	1,793	573	1,220	3,074	818	2,256	3,408	881	2,527	3,596	908	2,688
Skilled.....	190	190	—	249	249	—	254	254	—	256	256	—
Semiskilled ¹	1,292	318	974	2,313	480	1,833	2,587	524	2,063	2,716	539	2,177
Unskilled.....	311	65	246	512	89	423	567	103	464	624	113	511
South.....	3,404	1,357	2,047	7,278	2,417	4,861	7,995	2,585	5,410	8,817	2,856	5,961
Skilled.....	356	356	—	561	561	—	572	572	—	605	605	—
Semiskilled ¹	2,353	815	1,538	5,325	1,544	3,781	5,906	1,676	4,230	6,477	1,858	4,619
Unskilled.....	695	186	509	1,392	312	1,080	1,517	337	1,180	1,735	393	1,342

¹ Include 44 skilled females.² Include 21 skilled females.³ Include 23 skilled females.

Among the women, in nearly every instance, the average for all semiskilled workers, including the few classed as skilled, was only slightly higher than that for the unskilled group. Thus, for all females whose work extended over 52 weeks the average annual earnings in the United States as a whole amounted to \$648 for the semiskilled, as against \$615 for the unskilled, a difference of \$33. The respective averages were \$723 and \$690 in the North and \$601 and \$579 in the South. Similar variations were found in comparing the averages including the earnings of females who were employed over shorter periods of time. In each case, however, the difference between the annual earnings of semiskilled and unskilled females was greater in the northern than in the southern establishments.

The average annual earnings for similar classes of workers were higher in the North than in the South. Thus, among the workers who were employed throughout the year the average for skilled males was \$136 greater in the northern than in the southern plants. The differences amounted to \$369 for semiskilled and \$258 for unskilled males. Among the females employed full time, the differences were \$122 for semiskilled and \$111 for unskilled. A comparison of the averages for workers who were employed during 40 weeks and over reveals that the regional differences for males amounted to \$178 for skilled, \$345 for semiskilled, and \$260 for unskilled. Among the females, the differences were \$153 for semiskilled and \$131 for unskilled. It will be observed that the regional differences were largest for the semiskilled workers in each case.

The distribution of workers according to annual earnings in the seamless-hosiery branch is shown in table 5.

Unionization in seamless hosiery plants was too limited in extent to permit any comparison of annual earnings in union and nonunion establishments. Likewise, because of the small number of skilled workers, it was not possible to analyze the data on an occupational basis.

TABLE 5.—Percentage Distribution of Seamless-Hosiery Workers by Annual Earnings, Region, and Sex, 1937

Annual earnings	Percent of employees whose work extended over—											
	52 weeks			40 weeks and over			26 weeks and over			Any part of the year		
	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females
<i>United States</i>												
Under \$200.....	(1)		(1)	0.7	0.2	1.0	2.3	1.0	2.9	8.5	6.5	9.5
\$200 and under \$300.....	0.9	0.3	1.2	3.9	1.4	5.1	5.8	2.5	7.3	6.5	3.6	7.8
\$300 and under \$400.....	4.0	1.1	5.7	9.2	3.2	11.9	10.8	4.4	13.7	10.3	4.6	12.8
\$400 and under \$500.....	10.4	4.9	13.7	15.1	8.3	18.2	15.3	9.2	17.9	14.2	8.8	16.5
\$500 and under \$600.....	16.2	8.1	21.0	18.3	11.3	21.4	17.3	11.4	19.8	16.0	10.5	18.3
\$600 and under \$700.....	20.1	14.0	23.8	18.0	14.7	19.3	16.5	14.1	17.5	15.2	13.1	16.0
\$700 and under \$800.....	16.8	13.6	18.7	12.7	12.2	13.0	11.7	11.5	11.7	10.8	10.6	10.8
\$800 and under \$900.....	9.3	10.2	8.8	7.1	9.9	5.8	6.6	9.5	5.3	6.0	8.8	4.8
\$900 and under \$1,000.....	5.9	8.4	4.5	4.2	7.4	2.8	3.9	7.0	2.5	3.5	6.4	2.3
\$1,000 and under \$1,100.....	3.5	6.4	1.8	2.6	5.8	1.1	2.4	5.5	1.0	2.2	5.1	.9
\$1,100 and under \$1,200.....	2.5	6.2	.3	1.7	4.9	.2	1.5	4.6	.2	1.4	4.2	.2
\$1,200 and under \$1,300.....	1.8	4.5	.2	1.2	3.7	.1	1.1	3.5	.1	1.0	3.2	.1
\$1,300 and under \$1,400.....	1.7	4.4	.1	1.1	3.5	.1	1.0	3.3	.1	.9	3.0	(1)
\$1,400 and under \$1,500.....	1.7	4.5		1.1	3.7		1.0	3.4		1.0	3.2	
\$1,500 and under \$1,600.....	1.4	3.7	(1)	.9	2.8	(1)	.8	2.6	(1)	.7	2.4	(1)
\$1,600 and under \$1,700.....	1.1	2.7	.1	.6	2.0	(1)	.6	1.8	(1)	.5	1.7	(1)
\$1,700 and over.....	2.7	7.0	.1	1.6	5.0	(1)	1.4	4.7	(1)	1.3	4.3	(1)
Total.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number of workers.....	5,197	1,930	3,267	10,352	3,235	7,117	11,403	3,466	7,937	12,413	3,764	8,649
<i>North</i>												
Under \$200.....							0.2		0.3	3.6	1.4	4.3
\$200 and under \$300.....	0.2		0.3	0.3		0.4	1.6	0.6	1.9	2.8	1.2	3.3
\$300 and under \$400.....	.3		.4	1.8	0.5	2.3	4.8	1.1	6.1	4.9	1.5	6.1
\$400 and under \$500.....	3.2	0.2	4.6	7.3	1.6	9.3	9.1	3.1	11.2	8.7	3.3	10.6
\$500 and under \$600.....	9.1	1.4	12.8	15.1	2.8	19.6	15.4	4.7	19.1	14.7	4.6	18.0
\$600 and under \$700.....	22.1	4.0	30.5	22.3	5.7	28.5	20.6	6.2	25.6	19.5	6.1	24.1
\$700 and under \$800.....	20.7	5.9	27.6	18.3	7.9	22.0	16.6	7.6	19.8	15.8	7.4	18.7
\$800 and under \$900.....	11.5	7.7	13.3	9.8	9.3	10.0	9.1	9.4	9.0	8.6	9.1	8.4
\$900 and under \$1,000.....	7.9	10.8	6.6	6.7	11.2	5.1	6.1	10.5	4.5	5.8	10.3	4.2
\$1,000 and under \$1,100.....	4.7	8.7	2.8	4.0	9.7	1.9	3.6	9.1	1.7	3.4	8.8	1.6
\$1,100 and under \$1,200.....	4.5	12.6	.7	3.3	10.6	.6	2.9	9.9	.5	2.8	9.7	.5
\$1,200 and under \$1,300.....	2.6	7.7	.2	2.0	7.0	.2	1.8	6.5	.2	1.7	6.3	.1
\$1,300 and under \$1,400.....	3.0	9.2		2.1	7.8	(1)	1.9	7.3	(1)	1.8	7.0	(1)
\$1,400 and under \$1,500.....	3.3	10.3		2.4	8.9		2.1	8.3		2.0	8.0	
\$1,500 and under \$1,600.....	2.5	7.9		1.6	5.9	.1	1.5	5.4	.1	1.4	5.3	.1
\$1,600 and under \$1,700.....	1.6	4.9	.1	1.1	4.0	(1)	1.0	3.7	(1)	.9	3.6	(1)
\$1,700 and over.....	2.8	8.7	.1	1.9	7.1	(1)	1.7	6.6	(1)	1.6	6.4	(1)
Total.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number of workers.....	1,793	573	1,220	3,074	818	2,256	3,408	881	2,527	3,596	998	2,688
<i>South</i>												
Under \$200.....	(1)		(1)	1.0	0.2	1.4	3.2	1.3	4.1	10.6	8.1	11.8
\$200 and under \$300.....	1.2	0.4	1.8	5.5	1.8	7.3	7.6	3.1	9.8	8.1	4.3	9.9
\$300 and under \$400.....	6.0	1.6	8.9	12.3	4.2	16.3	13.4	5.5	17.2	12.5	5.6	15.8
\$400 and under \$500.....	14.2	6.9	19.2	18.5	10.6	22.5	18.0	11.3	21.0	16.2	10.6	19.1
\$500 and under \$600.....	19.9	10.9	26.0	19.4	14.2	22.1	18.2	13.6	20.3	16.4	12.4	18.4
\$600 and under \$700.....	19.2	18.4	19.8	16.0	17.8	15.1	14.7	16.7	13.7	13.4	15.3	12.4
\$700 and under \$800.....	14.7	16.8	13.3	10.4	13.6	8.8	9.5	12.9	7.9	8.7	11.7	7.2
\$800 and under \$900.....	8.2	11.2	6.2	6.0	10.1	3.9	5.5	9.6	3.5	5.0	8.6	3.2
\$900 and under \$1,000.....	4.9	7.4	3.2	3.2	6.1	1.7	2.9	5.8	1.6	2.6	5.2	1.4
\$1,000 and under \$1,100.....	2.9	5.4	1.3	2.0	4.6	.7	1.8	4.3	.7	1.7	3.9	.6
\$1,100 and under \$1,200.....	1.5	3.5	.1	1.0	3.0	.1	.9	2.8	.1	.9	2.5	.1
\$1,200 and under \$1,300.....	1.3	3.1	.1	.9	2.6	(1)	.8	2.5	(1)	.7	2.2	(1)
\$1,300 and under \$1,400.....	1.0	2.3	.1	.7	2.0	.1	.7	1.9	.1	.6	1.7	.1
\$1,400 and under \$1,500.....	.8	2.0		.6	1.9		.6	1.8		.5	1.6	
\$1,500 and under \$1,600.....	.8	2.0	(1)	.6	1.7	(1)	.5	1.6	(1)	.5	1.5	(1)
\$1,600 and under \$1,700.....	.8	1.8	(1)	.4	1.3	(1)	.4	1.2	(1)	.4	1.1	(1)
\$1,700 and over.....	2.6	6.3	(1)	1.5	4.3	(1)	1.3	4.1	(1)	1.2	3.7	(1)
Total.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number of workers.....	3,404	1,357	2,047	7,278	2,417	4,861	7,995	2,585	5,410	8,817	2,856	5,961

(1) Less than a tenth of 1 percent.

HOURLY EARNINGS IN DYEING AND FINISHING OF COTTON, RAYON, AND SILK ¹

THERE was a widespread reduction of wages in dyeing and finishing during the first half of 1938, as in some of the other textile manufacturing industries. The decreases, which affected a considerable number of establishments, varied from approximately 6 to 12½ percent, with most of them amounting to between 9 and 10 percent. A few plants granted general increases in wages during 1939,² but on the whole the industry's earnings in the fall of 1939 were still at the level reached about the middle of 1938.

The trend of wages in the dyeing and finishing industry since the latter part of 1937 may be seen from the following monthly data on average hourly earnings, compiled by the Bureau of Labor Statistics from its reports on employment and pay rolls.

	1937 (cents)	1938 (cents)	1939 (cents)
January.....	53.8	56.6	54.1
February.....	53.3	55.1	53.8
March.....	54.2	54.6	53.4
April.....	55.9	54.1	53.9
May.....	56.2	54.4	53.5
June.....	57.4	54.7	53.7
July.....	57.2	54.6	52.4
August.....	56.8	53.8	52.9
September.....	57.1	53.4	53.1
October.....	57.5	53.0	53.1
November.....	57.6	53.0	53.7
December.....	58.0	53.2	---

Average hourly earnings declined from a high point of approximately 58 cents in the last quarter of 1937 to about 53 cents in the latter part of 1938. During the first 11 months of 1939, hourly earnings averaged about 53 to 54 cents, indicating that generally wages in this industry had not recovered from the losses suffered in the first half of 1938.

During the summer of 1938, the Bureau made a survey for the purpose of presenting a cross section of the industry's wage structure following the wage reductions during the first 6 months of the year. The results of the survey, which are summarized in this article, show the extent of variation in hourly earnings by sex, skill, product, type of plant, occupation,³ and geographic area.

¹ Prepared by the Division of Wage and Hour Statistics of the Bureau of Labor Statistics, in cooperation with the Division of Public Contracts.

² In accordance with the provisions of the Fair Labor Standards Act, the hourly earnings of a number of individual employees were raised to 25 cents on October 24, 1938, and to 30 cents on October 24, 1939. See pp. 190-191.

³ Data on occupational averages will appear as an appendix to the reprint of this article.

Scope and Method

Dyeing and finishing is one of the important phases of textile manufacturing, regardless of the materials used. The processes involved are largely chemical and highly specialized, and for this reason the work is generally considered a separate industry, even though many of the larger textile manufacturers perform the dyeing and finishing along with the other phases of the manufacturing processes.

The definition of the industry used in this survey conformed broadly to the coverage of the 1937 Census of Manufactures under the related industry group of "Dyeing and Finishing Cotton, Rayon, and Silk." The Census of Manufactures included 3 classes of establishments: (1) Plants engaged largely in dyeing, bleaching, or mercerizing yarn for sale or on commission; (2) establishments engaged primarily in bleaching, dyeing, finishing, printing, or otherwise converting cotton woven fabrics, except plants engaged largely in dyeing and finishing knit goods; and (3) establishments engaged primarily in bleaching, dyeing, finishing, printing, or otherwise converting rayon or silk woven fabrics, except plants engaged largely in dyeing and finishing knit goods.

A distinction is usually made in the industry between "corporate" and "commercial" establishments, the former being engaged in dyeing and finishing their own production of yarn and fabrics, whereas the latter dye and finish yarn or fabrics not of their own manufacture but supplied to them by other textile plants. The survey excluded commercial plants employing fewer than 20 workers during the payroll period scheduled, while the dyeing and finishing departments of corporate establishments were scheduled regardless of the number of employees found. Moreover, the survey excluded the dyeing and finishing of yarn in corporate plants, which is usually included by the Bureau in the separate surveys of the cotton and silk and rayon goods industries.⁴

As defined by the Census of Manufactures, the dyeing and finishing industry showed 533 establishments (whose annual production was valued at \$5,000 or more) and 74,982 wage earners (average for the year) in 1937. The Bureau's survey was made on a sample basis, including 206 plants with 28,330 workers. Taking into consideration the narrower definition used by the Bureau, as well as the decline in employment since 1937, the sample probably approximates almost a 50-percent coverage. The selection of the sample was made with great care, in order to insure its representative character with respect to various factors, such as geographical distribution, size of establishment, corporate affiliation, type of plant, product, size of community, and unionization.

⁴ This survey also excluded the dyeing and finishing of woolsens and worsteds.

The hourly earnings shown in this article represent those current in the industry as of July 1, 1938, thus incorporating any changes in wage rates that were made by the plants covered prior to that date. In scheduling the various establishments, because of the reduced operations in numerous instances, special care was exercised to select a pay-roll period that included a balanced employment from the occupational standpoint. The information was collected by field representatives of the Bureau from plant pay rolls and other company records, the data covering all except nonworking supervisors and office employees.

Methods of Wage Payment

By far the largest proportion of the total labor force in the dyeing and finishing industry was paid on a straight time basis, the actual figure amounting to 85.6 percent. This may be compared with only 7.0 percent on straight piece rates and 6.0 percent under various production-bonus plans. The method of wage payment was not reported for 1.4 percent of the workers.

The distribution of employees according to method of wage payment was somewhat different between the sexes. Among males, 88.4 percent were paid straight time rates, 4.2 percent straight piece rates, 5.9 percent under production-bonus systems, and the method of wage payment was not known for 1.5 percent. The respective figures for females were 68.3, 25.0, 6.4, and 0.3 percent. In other words, a much higher percentage of females than males were on a straight piece rate basis.

In practically all of the occupational classes for which averages will be presented,³ the straight time workers constituted a majority. The largest proportion of straight piece workers was found among female yarn winders and hooker-machine tenders and male yarn winders and cloth winding doublers, but even here many employees were paid straight time rates.

Hourly Earnings for the Industry as a Whole

For the 28,330 wage earners employed by the dyeing and finishing plants covered in this survey, hourly earnings averaged 54.5 cents in the first half of 1938. Table 1 presents the percentage distribution of individual hourly earnings upon which this average is based.

One feature of this table is the extensive range covered by the individual hourly earnings. Even with the omission of the relatively few workers in the extreme classes, the spread was from 22.5 cents to \$2.00 an hour. Between these extremes, moreover, there was no tendency in the data toward a well-defined concentration. In terms of 5-cent intervals, the largest massing was between 37.5 and 52.5 cents, accounting for approximately two-fifths of the total workers.

³ Data on occupational averages will appear as an appendix to the reprint of this article.

Another important concentration was in the class of 62.5 and under 67.5 cents, within which were found 15.0 percent of the wage earners.

Another feature of the table is the relatively small proportion of dyeing and finishing employees in the low-earnings classes. Less than 1 percent earned under 25 cents an hour, only 2.9 percent below 30 cents and one-tenth under 35 cents. Over one-fourth (28.5 percent) received less than 42.5 cents. This is in striking contrast with the cotton-textile industry, in which all except three-tenths of the employees were paid under 40 cents an hour in August 1938.

TABLE 1.—*Percentage Distribution of Dyeing and Finishing Workers, by Average Hourly Earnings, Skill, and Sex, 1938*

Hourly earnings (in cents)	All workers			Skilled workers			Semiskilled workers			Unskilled workers		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Under 22.5.....	0.3	0.3	0.6	-----	-----	-----	0.1	0.1	0.5	1.3	1.2	2.4
22.5 and under 25.0.....	.4	.5	.2	-----	-----	-----	.1	.1	.1	2.1	2.1	1.4
25.0 and under 27.5.....	1.0	1.0	1.4	(1)	(1)	-----	.5	.4	.9	3.7	3.5	6.9
27.5 and under 30.0.....	1.2	.6	5.0	-----	-----	-----	1.3	.5	5.4	1.4	1.4	1.0
30.0 and under 32.5.....	2.8	2.4	5.8	0.2	0.3	-----	3.0	2.4	5.9	3.8	3.8	5.2
32.5 and under 35.0.....	4.3	3.3	11.4	.3	.3	-----	4.7	3.2	11.7	5.7	5.4	10.3
35.0 and under 37.5.....	5.4	4.8	9.5	1.5	1.4	-----	5.3	4.4	9.5	8.3	8.2	10.7
37.5 and under 40.0.....	7.1	6.2	13.1	1.8	1.7	-----	8.0	6.7	13.9	7.3	7.4	4.8
40.0 and under 42.5.....	6.0	4.9	13.6	2.0	1.8	-----	6.4	5.0	13.4	7.1	6.6	15.5
42.5 and under 47.5.....	12.7	12.4	14.9	5.4	5.3	-----	12.6	12.1	15.1	17.8	18.1	14.1
47.5 and under 52.5.....	13.3	12.8	15.8	6.9	6.7	-----	13.8	13.5	14.9	15.3	14.9	22.9
52.5 and under 57.5.....	9.2	10.1	4.0	7.5	7.4	-----	10.3	11.6	4.0	6.2	6.4	2.4
57.5 and under 62.5.....	6.9	7.7	1.7	7.7	7.6	-----	7.9	9.1	1.6	2.4	2.4	2.1
62.5 and under 67.5.....	15.0	16.8	1.2	8.8	8.7	-----	16.2	19.4	1.1	13.4	14.2	.3
67.5 and under 72.5.....	5.2	5.8	1.1	8.3	8.5	-----	5.2	6.0	1.3	3.1	3.3	-----
72.5 and under 77.5.....	2.0	2.2	.6	8.6	8.7	-----	1.3	1.4	.6	.8	.8	-----
77.5 and under 82.5.....	1.4	1.6	.1	6.7	6.7	-----	.9	1.1	.1	.2	.2	-----
82.5 and under 87.5.....	1.1	1.3	(1)	4.6	4.6	-----	.8	1.0	(1)	.1	.1	-----
87.5 and under 92.5.....	.9	1.0	-----	4.4	4.5	-----	.5	.6	-----	(1)	(1)	-----
92.5 and under 100.0.....	.4	.4	-----	2.3	2.3	-----	.1	.2	-----	-----	-----	-----
100.0 and under 120.0.....	1.3	1.5	(1)	5.5	5.6	-----	.9	1.1	-----	-----	-----	-----
120.0 and under 140.0.....	.4	.5	-----	3.3	3.4	-----	.1	.1	-----	-----	-----	-----
140.0 and under 160.0.....	.4	.4	-----	3.1	3.1	-----	(1)	(1)	-----	-----	-----	-----
160.0 and under 180.0.....	1.0	1.1	-----	8.5	8.7	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
180.0 and under 200.0.....	.2	.3	-----	1.9	2.0	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
200.0 and over.....	.1	.1	-----	.7	.7	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
Total.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	(2)	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number of workers.....	28,330	24,560	3,770	3,214	3,169	45	20,112	16,678	3,434	5,004	4,713	291

¹ Less than a tenth of 1 percent.

² Not a sufficient number of workers to justify presentation of a distribution. These figures, however, are included in the totals.

No less significant is the fairly generous scattering of dyeing and finishing workers in the upper-earnings classes. One-tenth (9.2 percent) received 72.5 cents an hour and over, although that figure was virtually the upper limit in cotton-textile manufacturing. It is also significant that the earnings of a small minority (3.4 percent) exceeded \$1.00.

Variations by Sex and Skill

With some exceptions, the representation in the higher-earnings classes in the dyeing and finishing industry is restricted to skilled males. Thus, for the entire country, one-half (50.3 percent) of the

workers in this group received 72.5 cents and over an hour. This may be compared with 5.5 percent for semiskilled and only 1.1 percent for unskilled males. For all females, the figure amounted to less than 1 percent, practically all of them being semiskilled workers.

Conversely, hourly earnings of less than 42.5 cents were reported for three-fifths (60.6 percent) of all females, two-fifths (39.6 percent) of the unskilled males, and over one-fifth (22.8 percent) of the semiskilled males. By contrast, only 5.5 percent of the skilled males were paid below 42.5 cents.

According to table 2, the average hourly earnings in the United States as a whole ranged from 84.7 cents for skilled males to 39.9 cents for unskilled females. Among males, the difference in the averages amounted to 30.7 cents between skilled and semiskilled, but it was only 7.5 cents between semiskilled and unskilled employees. There was hardly any difference (1.3 cents) in the averages between semiskilled and unskilled females.

TABLE 2.—Average Hourly Earnings of Dyeing and Finishing Workers, by Wage District, Sex, and Skill, 1938

Wage district and sex	Number of workers				Average hourly earnings			
	All	Skilled	Semi-skilled	Unskilled	All workers	Skilled	Semi-skilled	Unskilled
United States.....	28,330	3,214	20,112	5,004	\$0.545	\$0.842	\$0.518	\$0.461
Males.....	24,560	3,169	16,678	4,713	.565	.847	.540	.465
Females.....	3,770	45	3,434	291	.412	(1)	.412	.399
Northern wage district ²	21,754	2,424	15,448	3,882	.586	.922	.554	.500
Males.....	19,008	2,385	13,005	3,618	.607	.928	.576	.506
Females.....	2,746	39	2,443	264	.435	(1)	.436	.413
Southern wage district ³	6,576	790	4,664	1,122	.409	.599	.397	.325
Males.....	5,552	784	3,673	1,095	.420	.600	.409	.327
Females.....	1,024	6	991	27	.350	(1)	.352	(1)

¹ Not a sufficient number of workers to justify computation of an average.

² Includes Maine, New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois.

³ Includes Alabama, Georgia, Mississippi, North Carolina, South Carolina, Tennessee, and Virginia.

The labor force in dyeing and finishing establishments was composed primarily of males, the proportions being 86.7 percent men and 13.3 percent women. The working force was also predominantly semiskilled, the latter constituting 71.0 percent of the total, which may be compared with 11.4 percent skilled and 17.6 percent unskilled employees. There were very few skilled and only a small proportion of unskilled females in the industry.

Geographical Differences

In dyeing and finishing, as in some of the other divisions of the textile industry, there are sharp geographical differences in hourly earnings. According to table 3, the State averages in dyeing and finishing plants ranged from 36.7 cents in Georgia to 67.0 cents in New Jersey. It is significant to note, however, that the highest average, namely 44.8

cents for Virginia and Tennessee combined, among the Southern States was distinctly below the lowest average—52.4 cents for Massachusetts—shown by any of the Northern States.⁵

TABLE 3.—Average Hourly Earnings of Dyeing and Finishing Workers, by Wage District and State, 1938

Wage district and State	Coverage of survey		Average hourly earnings
	Number of plants	Number of workers	
United States.....	206	28,330	\$0.545
Northern wage district.....	157	21,754	.586
Connecticut.....	11	1,549	.563
Illinois, Indiana, and Ohio ¹	6	487	.546
Massachusetts ²	22	4,850	.524
New Jersey.....	48	6,152	.670
New York.....	26	2,201	.545
Pennsylvania ³	23	2,872	.598
Rhode Island.....	21	3,643	.556
Southern wage district.....	49	6,576	.409
Alabama and Mississippi ⁴	6	623	.391
Georgia.....	6	612	.367
North Carolina.....	22	2,021	.394
South Carolina.....	10	2,247	.420
Virginia and Tennessee ⁵	5	1,073	.448

¹ Includes 3 plants in Illinois, 1 in Indiana, and 2 in Ohio.

² Includes 1 plant in Maine and 2 in New Hampshire.

³ Includes 1 plant in Delaware.

⁴ Includes 4 plants in Alabama and 2 in Mississippi.

⁵ Includes 3 plants in Virginia and 2 in Tennessee.

The clear-cut contrast in hourly earnings between the northern and southern establishments is confirmed by a comparison of the averages for these regions. In contrast with an average of 58.6 cents an hour for all workers in the northern plants, the southern establishments averaged 40.9 cents, which is a difference of 17.7 cents.

As is evident from the total distribution in table 4, 30 cents was virtually the lower limit of hourly earnings in the northern wage district. Only 5.8 percent received below 37.5 cents, while 16.6 percent were paid under 42.5 cents. It was only in this region, however, that a significant number of employees were found with hourly earnings of 72.5 cents and over, the proportion amounting to 11.0 percent. In fact, 4.1 percent earned \$1.00 and over, and 1.7 percent received \$1.60 and over.

In the southern wage district, by contrast, 3.0 percent of all workers fell short of the 25-cent level, and 11.9 percent were paid less than 30 cents an hour. In fact, as many as 69.0 percent received below 42.5 cents. Although there was a small scattering of southern employees in the higher earnings classes, the number earning 72.5 cents and over amounted to only 2.8 percent.

⁵ A distinction between the Northern and Southern States for this industry was drawn in the NRA code. Included in the South were Alabama, Arkansas, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Mississippi, North Carolina, Oklahoma, South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas, Virginia, and West Virginia. The Southern States were provided with a minimum of 2½ cents per hour less than that covering the remainder of the country.

TABLE 4.—Percentage Distribution of Dyeing and Finishing Workers, by Average Hourly Earnings, Wage District, Skill, and Sex, 1938

NORTHERN WAGE DISTRICT

Average hourly earnings (in cents)	All workers			Skilled workers			Semiskilled workers			Unskilled workers		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Under 22.5.....	0.1	(1)	0.5	-----	-----	-----	0.1	(1)	0.6	0.1	(1)	0.4
22.5 and under 25.0.....	(1)	(1)	.3	-----	-----	-----	(1)	-----	.2	.1	(1)	1.5
25.0 and under 27.5.....	.1	(1)	.7	-----	-----	-----	.1	(1)	.4	.3	0.1	3.4
27.5 and under 30.0.....	.1	(1)	.5	-----	-----	-----	.1	(1)	.5	.2	.1	.4
30.0 and under 32.5.....	.7	0.5	2.0	-----	-----	-----	.5	0.3	1.8	1.6	1.4	4.5
32.5 and under 35.0.....	2.0	1.3	7.1	0.1	0.1	-----	2.0	1.1	6.8	3.3	2.7	11.4
35.0 and under 37.5.....	2.8	2.0	8.2	.1	(1)	-----	2.5	1.5	8.1	5.6	5.3	10.2
37.5 and under 40.0.....	5.3	3.9	14.5	.3	.2	-----	5.6	3.8	15.7	7.0	7.1	4.9
40.0 and under 42.5.....	5.5	3.9	16.6	.6	.4	-----	5.6	3.6	16.5	8.0	7.3	17.0
42.5 and under 47.5.....	13.5	12.8	18.4	2.0	1.8	-----	13.3	12.2	18.8	21.4	22.0	15.5
47.5 and under 52.5.....	15.4	14.7	20.1	4.5	4.3	-----	16.1	15.5	19.3	19.2	18.9	25.4
52.5 and under 57.5.....	10.2	11.0	4.7	6.3	6.1	-----	11.5	12.7	4.8	7.7	8.0	2.7
57.5 and under 62.5.....	8.0	8.8	2.2	8.0	7.9	-----	9.2	10.6	2.0	3.0	3.0	2.3
62.5 and under 67.5.....	18.9	21.6	1.6	9.8	9.9	-----	20.9	24.4	1.6	17.2	18.4	.4
67.5 and under 72.5.....	6.4	7.1	1.6	9.4	9.6	-----	6.6	7.5	1.8	4.0	4.3	-----
72.5 and under 77.5.....	2.4	2.7	.8	10.0	10.1	-----	1.6	1.8	.9	1.0	1.1	-----
77.5 and under 82.5.....	1.7	2.0	.2	8.0	8.1	-----	1.1	1.3	.2	.2	.2	-----
82.5 and under 87.5.....	1.4	1.6	(1)	5.5	5.6	-----	1.1	1.3	(1)	.1	.1	-----
87.5 and under 92.5.....	1.0	1.2	-----	5.1	5.2	-----	.6	.7	-----	(1)	(1)	-----
92.5 and under 100.0.....	.4	.4	-----	2.4	2.4	-----	.2	.2	-----	-----	-----	-----
100.0 and under 120.0.....	1.5	1.7	(1)	5.8	5.8	-----	1.2	1.4	-----	-----	-----	-----
120.0 and under 140.0.....	.5	.5	-----	3.6	3.7	-----	.1	.1	-----	-----	-----	-----
140.0 and under 160.0.....	.4	.5	-----	3.8	3.9	-----	(1)	(1)	-----	-----	-----	-----
160.0 and under 180.0.....	1.3	1.4	-----	11.2	11.4	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
180.0 and under 200.0.....	.3	.3	-----	2.6	2.6	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
200.0 and over.....	.1	.1	-----	.9	.9	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
Total.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	(2)	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number of workers.....	21,754	19,008	2,746	2,424	2,385	39	15,448	13,005	2,443	3,882	3,618	264

SOUTHERN WAGE DISTRICT

Under 22.5.....	1.2	1.2	0.8	-----	-----	-----	0.3	0.3	0.2	5.6	5.2	-----
22.5 and under 25.0.....	1.8	2.1	-----	-----	-----	-----	.4	.5	-----	8.7	8.9	-----
25.0 and under 27.5.....	4.1	4.2	3.3	0.1	0.1	-----	2.0	1.9	2.3	15.5	14.9	-----
27.5 and under 30.0.....	4.8	2.5	17.2	-----	-----	-----	5.4	2.2	17.6	5.5	5.5	-----
30.0 and under 32.5.....	9.9	8.9	15.7	1.0	1.0	-----	11.1	9.7	15.9	11.6	11.6	-----
32.5 and under 35.0.....	12.0	10.0	22.9	.9	.9	-----	13.5	10.7	23.9	13.9	14.2	-----
35.0 and under 37.5.....	14.1	14.2	13.2	5.7	5.6	-----	14.6	14.9	13.1	17.6	17.7	-----
37.5 and under 40.0.....	13.3	14.0	9.5	6.3	6.3	-----	15.6	17.2	9.6	8.4	8.5	-----
40.0 and under 42.5.....	7.8	8.2	5.7	6.2	6.1	-----	9.0	9.9	5.8	4.1	4.2	-----
42.5 and under 47.5.....	10.2	11.0	5.5	15.9	15.8	-----	10.3	11.6	5.5	5.6	5.8	-----
47.5 and under 52.5.....	6.3	6.8	3.7	14.4	14.2	-----	6.0	6.7	3.6	1.9	1.9	-----
52.5 and under 57.5.....	6.0	6.8	2.0	11.3	11.4	-----	6.3	7.5	2.0	1.1	1.1	-----
57.5 and under 62.5.....	3.3	3.8	.5	6.8	6.9	-----	3.4	4.2	.5	.3	.3	-----
62.5 and under 67.5.....	1.4	1.7	-----	5.2	5.2	-----	1.1	1.4	-----	.1	.1	-----
67.5 and under 72.5.....	1.0	1.2	-----	4.9	5.0	-----	.6	.8	-----	.1	.1	-----
72.5 and under 77.5.....	.7	.8	-----	4.3	4.3	-----	.2	.3	-----	-----	-----	-----
77.5 and under 82.5.....	.4	.5	-----	2.4	2.4	-----	.2	.2	-----	-----	-----	-----
82.5 and under 87.5.....	.2	.2	-----	1.6	1.7	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
87.5 and under 92.5.....	.3	.4	-----	2.5	2.6	-----	(1)	(1)	-----	-----	-----	-----
92.5 and under 100.0.....	.2	.3	-----	2.0	2.0	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
100.0 and under 120.0.....	.6	.7	-----	4.7	4.7	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
120.0 and under 140.0.....	.3	.3	-----	2.4	2.4	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
140.0 and under 160.0.....	.1	.1	-----	.9	.9	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
160.0 and under 180.0.....	(1)	.1	-----	.4	.4	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
180.0 and under 200.0.....	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
200.0 and over.....	(1)	(1)	-----	.1	.1	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
Total.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	(2)	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	(2)
Number of workers.....	6,576	5,552	1,024	790	784	6	4,664	3,673	991	1,122	1,095	27

¹ Less than a tenth of 1 percent.² Not a sufficient number of workers to justify presentation of a distribution. The figures, however, are included in the totals.

Decisive differences in hourly earnings between the northern and southern wage districts in the dyeing and finishing industry are also revealed when the comparison is made separately for each sex-skill group. (See table 2.) On the basis of general averages, the differences in favor of the northern as compared with the southern region amounted to 32.8 cents for skilled males, 16.7 cents for semiskilled males, and 17.9 cents for unskilled males. For semiskilled females, the only group for which there is a sufficient number of employees to make a regional comparison, the difference was only 8.4 cents. A similar contrast was found in the northern and southern distributions of hourly earnings for each sex-skill group.

Although there was a pronounced gap in hourly earnings between the northern and southern districts, it should not be inferred that the wages within each of these regions were entirely homogeneous. The averages in the Northern States covered a range of 14.6 cents, while in the Southern States the spread amounted to 8.1 cents (table 3).

It is also significant to point out that even within a single State the hourly earnings varied considerably. For example, in New Jersey, which is the most important State for this industry in the northern region, the range of individual plant averages was from less than 40 cents to more than 85 cents. Likewise, there was a spread of 23.1 cents in the averages of the highest- and lowest-paid establishments in North Carolina, which is the most important State in the southern territory. Differences among plant averages are also found in other States.

In other words, there are factors other than the geographical that play an important part in the industry's wage structure. Before considering these factors, however, it is significant to examine the hourly earnings from the standpoint of the wage provisions found in the Fair Labor Standards Act.

Hourly Earnings in Relation to Fair Labor Standards Act

Under the provisions of the Fair Labor Standards Act, a 25-cent minimum per hour for plants engaged in interstate commerce went into effect on October 24, 1938. This was superseded by the 30-cent minimum on October 24, 1939. Moreover, upon the recommendation of an Industry Committee and the approval of the Administrator of the act, the minimum may be raised to any point not to exceed 40 cents. As the data in the survey cover the first half of 1938, they may be used to indicate the extent to which the dyeing and finishing industry had to adapt its wage structure in order to conform to the 25- and 30-cent minima, or may have to adjust it to any higher minimum in accordance with the act.⁶

⁶ It should be remembered that any adjustment of the wage structure to the various minima may affect not only the workers earning under those minima but also those in the higher wage classes. This is due to the fact that plants frequently find it necessary to maintain existing occupational and other differentials in hourly earnings.

In the northern wage district, as previously stated, very few workers had earnings under 30 cents an hour in the first half of 1938, the actual proportion amounting to 0.3 percent. The number paid below 32.5 cents was 1 percent. Only 0.5 percent of the males received less than 32.5 cents. For females, 0.8 percent earned under 25 cents, 2.0 percent below 30 cents, and 4.0 percent less than 32.5 cents. Taking the number of employees paid under 40 cents, the proportion amounted to 11.1 percent for all workers, as against 7.7 percent for males, and 33.8 percent for females.

In the southern establishments, on the other hand, it will be remembered that 3.0 percent of all wage earners had earnings under 25 cents an hour in the first half of 1938, while as many as 11.9 percent received below 30 cents. There were 21.8 percent paid less than 32.5 cents. Among males, 3.3 percent earned under 25 cents, 10.0 percent below 30 cents, and 18.9 percent less than 32.5 cents, which may be compared respectively to 0.8, 21.3, and 37.0 percent for females. The number paid under 40 cents amounted to 61.2 percent for all workers, as compared with 57.1 percent for males and 82.6 percent for females.

In the country as a whole, 0.7 percent of the total employees averaged under 25 cents an hour, and only 2.9 percent earned below 30 cents. The number paid less than 32.5 cents amounted to 5.7 percent. There were as many as 22.5 percent, however, receiving under 40 cents at the time of the survey.

Variations by Product, Type of Plant, and Unionization

In the past, there was a rather rigid demarcation between the manufacture of cotton fabrics and that of silk and rayon fabrics. In recent years, however, a considerable proportion of the silk and rayon fabrics has been handled by cotton-fabric dyeing and finishing plants. Likewise, some of the silk- and rayon-fabric dyeing and finishing establishments have been handling cotton fabrics.

This shifting of product has given rise to important competitive problems, especially as affecting the silk and rayon dyeing and finishing plants, which have a higher wage level than those covering cotton fabrics. This difference in wage levels may be seen from an examination of the data in table 5.

Among corporate establishments in the northern wage district, there was no difference in hourly earnings between plants handling exclusively cotton fabrics and those working on predominantly cotton fabrics, the averages amounting to 53.4 cents in both instances. For the commercial establishments, there was relatively a small variation in hourly earnings between these two kinds of plants, the respective averages being 54.2 and 57.1 cents. Likewise, there was relatively little difference in the hourly earnings between establishments han-

dling primarily rayon fabrics and those working on predominantly silk fabrics, the former averaging 64.9 and the latter 66.1 cents. However, the above figures indicate a considerable gap in the averages between the cotton-fabric and silk- and rayon-fabric plants. There was also a substantial variation in the hourly earnings between commercial establishments working on cotton yarn and those handling rayon and silk yarn, the respective averages being 51.6 and 59.5 cents.

TABLE 5.—Average Hourly Earnings of Dyeing and Finishing Workers, by Wage District, Product, and Type of Plant, 1938

Product and type of plant	Northern wage district			Southern wage district		
	Number of plants	Number of workers	Average hourly earnings	Number of plants	Number of workers	Average hourly earnings
All products.....	157	21,754	\$0.586	49	6,576	\$0.409
Corporate.....	24	4,012	.532	34	3,530	.396
Commercial.....	133	17,742	.598	15	3,046	.424
Exclusively cotton fabrics.....	37	5,551	.539	31	3,736	.398
Corporate.....	9	1,520	.534	27	3,121	.397
Commercial.....	28	4,031	.542	4	615	.399
Predominantly cotton fabrics.....	26	5,517	.556	8	(1)	(1)
Corporate.....	9	2,224	.534	6	353	.402
Commercial.....	17	3,293	.571	2	(1)	(1)
Predominantly rayon fabrics.....	57	7,455	.646	4	(1)	(1)
Corporate.....	4	154	.501	1	(1)	(1)
Commercial.....	53	7,301	.649	3	497	.418
Predominantly silk fabrics.....	14	1,152	.647			
Corporate.....	2	114	(1)			
Commercial.....	12	1,038	.661			
Cotton yarn.....	16	1,553	.516	6	876	.382
Corporate.....						
Commercial.....	16	1,553	.516	6	876	.382
Rayon and silk yarn.....	7	526	.595			
Corporate.....						
Commercial.....	7	526	.595			

¹ Because of the possibility of revealing information of individual plants, this figure is not available for publication.

Because of the small coverage, few comparisons can be made on a product basis in the southern wage district. Among the corporate plants, there was a small difference in hourly earnings between establishments working exclusively on cotton fabrics and those handling primarily cotton fabrics, the averages being 39.7 cents for the former and 40.2 cents for the latter. For the commercial plants, there was a somewhat larger difference between plants handling exclusively cotton fabrics and those engaged on predominantly rayon fabrics, the respective averages being 39.9 and 41.8 cents.

The average hourly earnings were higher in commercial than in corporate establishments. The difference was not very large among plants handling exclusively cotton fabrics in the northern wage district, the averages being 54.2 for commercial and 53.4 cents for corporate establishments. For establishments working on predominantly cotton fabrics, the difference was more pronounced, the respective averages being 57.1 and 53.4 cents. The only comparison possible

in the southern wage district (plants handling exclusively cotton fabrics) shows hardly any difference between the commercial and corporate plants, the average hourly earnings amounting to 39.9 cents for the former and 39.7 cents for the latter.

Practically all of the union establishments⁷ covered in the sample were commercial plants. Moreover, they were nearly all located in the northern wage district. Among the commercial establishments, the union plants had average hourly earnings of 66.3 cents, which may be compared with 54.4 cents for the nonunion establishments. The few union corporate plants averaged 59.3 cents, as against 52.9 cents for the nonunion establishments.

For the commercial plants in the northern wage district, there is a sufficient coverage to make possible a comparison between union and nonunion establishments in several instances on a product basis, and in each case the average hourly earnings for the former exceeded those of the latter. The largest number of union plants was found among those working on predominantly rayon fabrics in which the average amounted to 68.5 cents for union establishments, as compared with 56.0 cents for nonunion plants. Among commercial establishments engaged on primarily silk fabrics, the respective averages were 69.5 and 56.8 cents. In the establishments working exclusively on cotton fabrics, the averages were 59.4 cents for the union and 53.4 cents for the nonunion plants. For establishments engaged on primarily cotton fabrics, the respective averages were 57.9 and 56.7 cents.

Although unionization contributed considerably to the higher average hourly earnings in commercial as compared with corporate establishments, it is interesting to note that for the nonunion plants in the northern wage district the averages of the commercial still exceeded those of the corporate establishments in each case for which a comparison is possible. Among establishments engaged on exclusively cotton fabrics, the averages were 53.4 cents for commercial and 52.2 cents for corporate plants. For establishments working on predominantly cotton fabrics, the respective averages were 56.7 and 53.4 cents. Lastly, among plants engaged on largely rayon fabrics, the averages were 56.0 cents for commercial and 50.1 cents for corporate establishments. The coverage is not sufficiently large to make other comparisons between union corporate and union commercial establishments.

On the other hand, even after unionization is taken into consideration, there appears to be little difference in the wage structure of establishments engaged on primarily cotton as against those engaged on exclusively cotton. There is also marked similarity between the hourly earnings on rayon and silk. However, as between these two groups, there is a substantial difference. In the union establishments in the northern wage district, for example, commercial plants handling

⁷ An establishment was classified as union if the majority of employees in the plant were in occupations covered by either oral or written agreements with unions.

exclusively cotton fabrics averaged 59.4 cents, which may be compared with 57.9 cents for those working on predominantly cotton fabrics—a difference of only 1.5 cents. Among nonunion establishments, the respective averages for commercial plants were 53.4 and 56.7 cents, a difference of 3.3 cents. For nonunion corporate establishments, the difference was only 1.2 cents, the averages amounting to 52.2 cents for those working on exclusively cotton fabrics and 53.4 cents for plants engaged on predominantly cotton fabrics. Likewise, among union establishments, there was relatively little difference between commercial plants working on predominantly rayon fabrics and those engaged on primarily silk fabrics, the respective averages being 68.5 and 69.5 cents. For nonunion establishments, the respective figures covering commercial plants amounted to 56.0 and 56.8 cents. Hence, the data still indicate a considerable gap in the averages between cotton-fabric and silk- and rayon-fabric establishments.

Undoubtedly, other factors play a part in connection with the variations in hourly earnings in the dyeing and finishing industry, such as the composition of the labor force, size of community, etc. However, the coverage is not sufficiently large to permit any further break-down of the data in order to determine the influence of the other factors on the industry's wage structure.

WAGES, HOURS, AND WORKING CONDITIONS IN UNION BAKERIES, JUNE 1, 1939 ¹

THE average hourly rate of union bakery workers in 72 cities was \$0.769 on June 1, 1939. This represented an increase of 1.2 percent over June 1, 1938. The actual rates ranged from \$0.25 per hour for woman novices in Portland, Maine, to \$1.667 per hour for cake foremen under one of the New York City agreements.

Wage payments under the bakery agreements are universally established on a time basis. Agreements with large factory bakeries generally specify hourly rates, whereas those with the smaller shops specify daily or weekly rates. In order to achieve comparability, these daily and weekly wage scales have been converted to an hourly basis and are so presented throughout this report. The averages cited include all of the occupations specified in the agreements, except apprentices. Variations in the descriptive terminology applied to particular occupations and in the duties assigned to workers in the various classifications prevent the computation of averages by job classifications.

Rates of \$1.00 or more per hour were reported for 17.6 percent of the total membership. A considerable majority (73.2 percent) of the membership, however, were receiving between 40 and 90 cents per hour. Only 1.5 percent of the total membership had contractual rates of less than 40 cents per hour. The distribution of the membership according to hourly rates is shown in table 1.

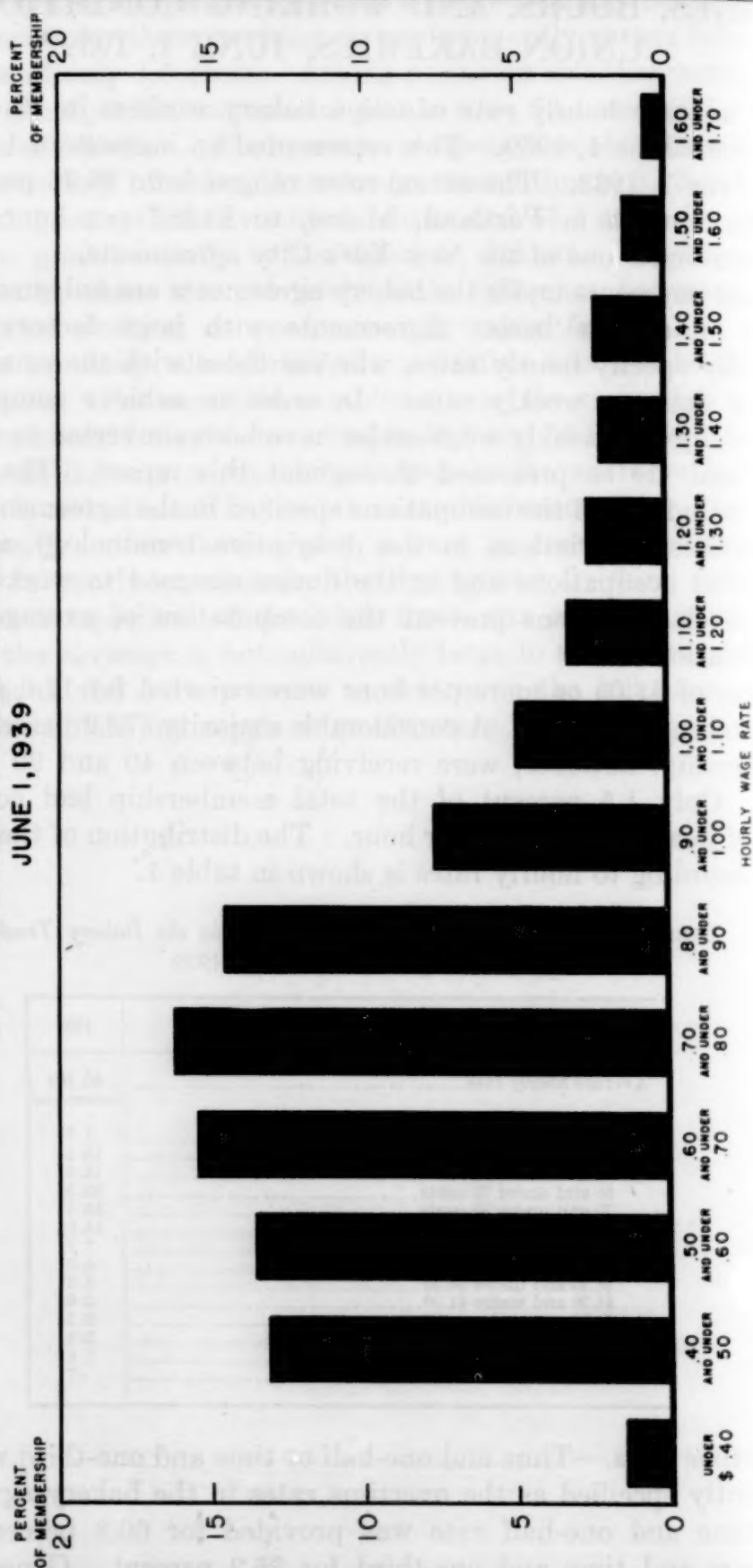
TABLE 1.—*Distribution of Union Members in the Bakery Trades,
by Hourly Rates, June 1, 1939*

Classified hourly rates	1939
Average hourly rate.....	\$0.769
Percent of members whose hourly rates were—	
Under 40 cents.....	1.5
40 and under 50 cents.....	13.2
50 and under 60 cents.....	13.6
60 and under 70 cents.....	15.5
70 and under 80 cents.....	16.3
80 and under 90 cents.....	14.6
90 cents and under \$1.00.....	7.7
\$1.00 and under \$1.10.....	5.0
\$1.10 and under \$1.20.....	3.3
\$1.20 and under \$1.30.....	2.6
\$1.30 and under \$1.40.....	2.2
\$1.40 and under \$1.50.....	2.4
\$1.50 and under \$1.60.....	1.4
\$1.60 and under \$1.70.....	.7

Overtime rates.—Time and one-half or time and one-third were most frequently specified as the overtime rates in the bakery agreements. The time and one-half rate was provided for 60.8 percent of the members and time and one-third for 25.2 percent. Generally any

¹ Prepared by Frank S. McElroy of the Bureau's Industrial Relations Division, under the direction of Florence Peterson, Chief.

DISTRIBUTION OF MEMBERS IN UNION BAKERIES BY HOURLY WAGE RATES JUNE 1, 1939



UNITED STATES BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

overtime work was discouraged except in emergencies, and frequently definite limitations were placed upon the amount of overtime permitted. These restrictions ranged from 1 to 8 hours in any week, 2 to 4 hours being the maximum, most frequently specified. The overtime rates provided and the proportions of the union membership to which each applied are shown below.

	Number of quotations	Percent of union members affected
No overtime rate provided.....	5	0.2
Straight time.....	52	4.3
Time and one-third.....	259	25.2
Time and one-half.....	792	60.8
Double time.....	7	1.8
Specified amounts, not a multiple of regular rate..	19	1.1
Overtime prohibited.....	26	6.6

Union Hours, 1939

The average maximum workweek provided in the union agreements for bakery workers on June 1, 1939, was 41.6 hours. A 40-hour week was specified for 60.1 percent of the members; 44 hours were specified for 11.5 percent; and 11.6 percent were allowed 48 hours. A small group (0.1 percent) worked under 54-hour week provisions and, at the other extreme, a limit of 30 hours was specified for 0.3 percent of the members.

TABLE 2.—Distribution of Union Members in the Bakery Trades, by Hours per Week, June 1, 1939

Classified weekly hours	1939
Average weekly hours.....	41.6
Percent of members whose hours per week were—	
30 hours.....	0.3
32 hours.....	.5
35 hours.....	.7
36 hours.....	3.0
37½ hours.....	.5
39 hours.....	.2
40 hours.....	60.1
42 hours.....	3.3
44 hours.....	11.5
45 hours.....	8.1
47 hours.....	.1
48 hours.....	11.6
54 hours.....	.1

Changes Between 1938 and 1939

Wage rates.—Nearly a fourth (24 percent) of the union members whose rates were reported for both 1938 and 1939 had pay increases during the year. The few rate reductions reported affected only 0.1 percent of the membership. The increases appeared in 185, or 22.8 percent, of the quotations which gave data for both years. Eight quotations, not quite 1 percent, showed decreases.

The amounts of the increases reported ranged as high as 16 percent, although the number of advances exceeding 10 percent of the 1938 rates was comparatively small. The largest percentage increases were those of bakeshop helpers in Cleveland pie plants, whose rate rose from \$0.500 per hour in 1938 to \$0.580 in 1939, and of ovenmen in one Scranton, Pa., hand shop, whose rate rose from \$0.375 to \$0.438. Half of the members who benefited by rate increases received pay increases of between 5 and 10 percent, and nearly half received increases of less than 5 percent. Of the total quotations showing rate increases there were 92 indicating advances of under 5 percent, 87 of 5 to 10 percent, and 6 of 10 percent and over.

	Number of quotations	Percent of union members affected
Increase.....	185	24.0
Under 5 percent.....	92	11.8
5 and under 10 percent.....	87	12.0
10 and under 15 percent.....	4	.2
15 percent and over.....	2	(¹)
Decrease.....	8	.1
No change.....	618	75.9

¹ Less than a tenth of 1 percent.

Weekly hours.—Changes in hour scales during the year affected relatively few union members. Reductions in the maximum weekly hours were reported in 34 quotations, applying to 2.1 percent of the members for whom comparable 1938 and 1939 data were available. In three quotations increases in weekly hours were reported, but these increases affected less than 0.1 percent of the membership. For 97.9 percent of the members the workweek remained the same in 1939 as in 1938.

	Number of quotations	Percent of union members affected
Increase.....	3	(¹)
Decrease.....	34	2.1
No change.....	774	97.9

¹ Less than a tenth of 1 percent.

Scope and Method of Study

The wage and hour data summarized above are based on information obtained by the Bureau of Labor Statistics as of June 1, 1939. This study is one of a series of annual surveys started in 1907, covering union scales in various trades in the principal cities of the United States. The early studies included 39 cities. The coverage has been gradually extended and now includes 72 cities. Effective union agreements providing wage and hour scales for bakery workers were reported in only 60 of these cities in 1939.

Agents of the Bureau visited 110 union representatives, obtaining 1,160 quotations of scales, 811 of which included comparable data for both 1938 and 1939. The union membership covered by these con-

tractual scales of wages and hours was 48,844, of which 40,021 were included in the reports which gave comparable rates and hours for 1938.

Averages.—The averages and percentages of change given in this report are based upon aggregates which are weighted according to the number of members in the various local unions. Thus the averages reflect not only the actual rates and hours provided in the union agreements but also the number of persons presumably benefiting from these scales. The membership weights used in both of the aggregates from which the percent of change over the year was computed are those reported for the second year.

Changes in coverage.—In the previous studies relating to bakery workers, only those engaged principally in bread baking were included. The present study has been extended to include all types of baking and to cover all occupations included under the bakery unions' agreements. The averages given in this report, therefore, are not comparable with those shown in previous reports. As the percentages of change are based entirely upon comparable quotations for the two years considered in each report, they are not affected by changes in coverage and may be compared with those in previous reports for the purpose of determining the trend of union wage rates and hours in the bakery trades.

Provisions in Bakery Agreements ²

The following discussion of provisions in agreements entered into by bakery unions and employers is not restricted to the agreements in the cities from which wage and hour data were obtained but is based upon all of the bakery agreements (175) in the Bureau's files.

PARTIES TO THE AGREEMENTS

The bakery locals almost invariably sign their agreements with each shop separately. The agreements with small and medium-size shops are usually uniform throughout the locality, but those with the large factory bakeries frequently vary between shops.

The agreements with the smaller firms are frequently negotiated with associations of employers. If no association of employers exists, the union usually consults with several employers before drawing up the agreement which it then asks each individual employer to sign. The agreements with factory bakeries are negotiated either with associations or separately with each firm. Frequently the associations do not include all of the employers. Under these circumstances it is customary for the union to offer identical terms to the nonassociation shops.

² In addition to wage and hour scales analyzed above.

About two-fifths of the agreements are negotiated with employers associations. Two-thirds of these associations are permanent organizations. The others are temporary groups assembled only for union-negotiating purposes. About two-fifths of the associations include all of the union employers in the district; about one-fourth include 75 percent of the employers; and only about 5 percent include less than half of the employers in the locality.

Approximately 10 percent of the agreements provide either that no more favorable terms shall be granted to any other employer in the district or that, if such terms are granted, they shall immediately become effective for all employers.

DURATION OF THE AGREEMENTS

The great majority of the bakery agreements are for a term of 1 year, with provisions for continuance pending the signing of a new agreement or in the absence of notice by one of the parties that its termination is desired. The standard termination clause specifies that the sanction of the international office must be obtained before the local union may request the termination of the agreement, and that the terms of any new agreement consummated after the stated expiration date shall be retroactive to that date.

UNION STATUS AND HIRING

The closed shop.—Bakery agreements almost universally provide that union membership shall be a requisite for continued employment in the production departments of signatory shops. The membership requirement, usually expressed as "members in good standing," is sometimes amplified by a clause requiring the employer to discharge any worker who may be suspended or expelled by the union.

Working employers, foremen, and excluded employees.—One-third of the agreements specifically provide that not more than one partner or official of a firm may work in the bake shop. A small number provide further that the working member of the firm must belong to the union. Generally it is specified that working employers must observe all of the working rules, including the restrictions on hours per day or week. In 1-man shops the owner is frequently required either to belong to the union or to employ a union member at least half time in order to qualify to use the union label.

Preference in obtaining employment by purchase of stock is frequently denied through a clause prohibiting any member from going to work for a firm in which he owns stock, unless such employment is obtained in the regular manner through the union office.

Foremen who regularly work with the product are included under the agreements. Those whose work normally is entirely supervisory are generally excluded.

Packers, shippers, porters, janitors, and sometimes elevator operators are included, when such exist. Office workers and supervising officials are specifically excluded in many agreements, and are never mentioned in any of the wage-rate sections. As a rule, the coverage clause merely states that all of the occupations listed in the rate section of the agreement shall be subject to the provisions of the contract.

Union hiring.—Sixty percent of the agreements specify that all hiring shall be through the union office. In some it is definitely stated that the employer must accept the workmen sent by the union. A few stipulate that the employer's request for a particular individual will be honored if he is available. Usually a clause is included providing that if the union is unable to supply the help requested, the employer may engage nonmembers upon condition that they make application for union membership within a specified time. The time limit is sometimes set as low as 24 hours, but is most frequently 2 weeks or a month.

A few agreements specifically permit the employer to hire anyone he chooses, but require that all nonmembers apply for membership within a short time after starting work.

Check-off.—The check-off system of paying union dues and assessments is not often found in the bakery agreements. Only 5 of the 175 agreements examined contain this provision.

Union label.—Nearly three-fourths of the agreements contain provisions regarding the use of the union label upon products of the signatory shops. The great majority of these make its use mandatory, about 15 percent providing that its use shall be optional. In all cases it is required that the labels be obtained from the union, except when permission has been granted to print the label upon wrappers, and it is definitely specified that ownership of the labels remains in the union. The fee for furnishing labels is most frequently set at 15 cents per 1,000 for plain labels, with slightly higher fees for those in color. Continued use of the label is usually made contingent upon strict observance of all agreement provisions.

WAGE REGULATIONS

Sex differentials.—Many of the bakery agreements specifically designate certain occupations, such as icing cakes or hand wrapping, as women's work. Differentials in pay for identical work, however, are not found in any agreement. A few, about 4 percent, definitely prohibit such differentials.

Night differentials.—Most of the agreements do not distinguish between day and night work. About one-fifth specify somewhat higher rates for night work than for day work. Most frequently the night rate applies to work between 6 p. m. and 6 a. m., in some cases

being applied to all of the work on any shift which either starts or ends between those hours. Some agreements specify a higher differential for work between midnight and 6 a. m. than for the hours from 6 p. m. to midnight. The differentials generally range from 5 to 10 cents per hour.

Transfer rates.—About 17 percent of the agreements, mostly those with the large bakeries, contain provisions regarding the pay of an employee temporarily working at an occupation not his own. Generally it is required that he be paid his regular rate or that of the temporary work, whichever is higher. Some agreements, however, provide that he shall continue to receive his regular rate, if the temporary assignment is of only a few hours' duration. Several agreements require an employee who regularly performs work in more than one rate classification to be paid for his entire time at the rate of the highest-paid classification. A few specify that the classification occupying 51 percent of an employee's time shall determine his rate, and several provide that the highest-rated occupation requiring as much as one-third of his time shall establish his full-time rate.

Pay guaranties.—Minimum-pay guaranties are frequently included in the agreements with hand and small machine shops. Agreements with the factory bakeries do not, as a rule contain guaranties, since the work in these shops is more regular. The guaranties for regular employees are most common in agreements which provide higher pro rata rates for part-time workers than for regular workers. These guaranties are usually either pay for the full week or for 1 day less than a full week. Part-time workers are generally guaranteed a minimum for each time they are asked to report, ranging from 2 hours' to 2 full days' pay. A number of the agreements specify that any regular employee who works less than a designated time in any week must be paid at the part-time rate.

A comparatively common provision in the agreements provides that should any law require that the agreed-upon working hours be reduced, this reduction shall be made without any reduction in the weekly pay. A similar protection against reduction in purchasing power is found in a few agreements, which provide that the wage scales shall be adjusted in the event of monetary inflation. Employees who, at the time of the adoption of the agreement, were receiving higher pay than specified in the contract, are usually protected by a clause prohibiting the reduction of their rates.

Share-the-work rules.—The equal distribution of available work in slack times is guaranteed in a number of agreements, especially with factory bakeries, which require rotation among the employees in each classification rather than lay-offs. A few agreements grant the union the privilege of restricting the number of days a member may work during slack times so as to insure rotation.

Wage payment.—Nearly half of the agreements specify the day of the week which shall be pay day. The majority of these require payment in full for the week, including the pay day. A few allow the employer 1 or 2 days after the end of the workweek in which to make up the pay roll. Part-time workers are generally required to be paid at the end of each day's work. About 10 percent of the agreements require wage payments to be made in currency.

Room, board, and allowances.—To discourage the old custom of bakery workers' being required to accept room and board as part payment of wages, more than half the agreements covering hand or small machine shops contain restrictions upon this practice. In most cases the workers are specifically prohibited from accepting pay in such form; a few, however, merely state that it shall not be required that any member room or board with his employer.

A few agreements specifically grant the employees the right to take designated amounts of the shop's product for their own use. These allowances usually amount to about 20 or 30 cents' worth of baked goods per day. Such provisions are most frequently included in agreements covering Hebrew baking.

HOURS AND LEAVE PROVISIONS

Hours per day.—The variations in the demand for baked goods on certain days of the week, and particularly just before holidays, necessitates deviations from a uniform workday in some bakeries. This is most frequently true in the smaller shops.

Nearly all of the agreements with the large factory bakeries specify an 8-hour day. The 8-hour day is generally designated as the normal day in the agreements with the smaller shops, but these frequently include a tolerance in the form of a minimum and a maximum number of hours that may constitute a workday, subject in all cases to the specified maximum weekly hours. In a few agreements particular days are named on which longer or shorter than normal hours may be worked.

Days per week.—The hand-shop agreements as a rule allow 6 days' work each week. In machine shops the maximum weekly hours allowed are frequently less than in hand shops and the workweek generally is restricted to 5 or 5½ days.

Overtime.—Generally the agreements specify a penalty rate, most frequently time and one-half, for work in excess of either the daily or weekly maximum hours. It is frequently provided that overtime shall be worked only in emergencies, and in a few instances overtime is prohibited entirely. Nearly a fifth of the agreements set the maximum amount of overtime that any employee may work during a week. The maximums range from 1 to 8 hours, 2 hours being specified most frequently. In a few cases it is provided that in extraordinary circumstances special permission to exceed the specified maximum may be secured from the union. A few agreements require that overtime be spread among all of the employees in the shop.

Regulation of shifts.—Split shifts are commonly prohibited in the bakery agreements by a provision that the working hours in each day be continuous. A few agreements specify that a designated number of hours must intervene between the time an employee finishes one shift and starts work on another. In some cases a day's notice is required when an employer wishes to change a workman from one shift to another.

Leave of absence.—Leave without pay is not commonly provided in the bakery agreements. A few, however, allow an employee to take an occasional day off, upon advance notice, and one agreement permits a leave of absence up to 90 days. Reinstatement after an absence caused by sickness or injury is required in a number of agreements.

HOLIDAYS AND VACATIONS

Annual vacations.—Vacations with pay after a year's continuous employment with one firm are provided in over half of the agreements. Generally, the vacation allowed is 1 week, although a few agreements provide that after a longer term of service (3 to 5 years) 2 weeks shall be allowed. Many of the agreements state that the employees must take the vacation and may not accept additional pay in lieu of the time off. Some agreements provide that vacations may be given at any time during the year, but more commonly the summer months are designated, and preference in the choice of time is granted to the employee oldest in service.

A frequent provision, in agreements which specify higher rates for part-time workers than for regular employees, is that substitutes for men on vacation or absent because of illness shall be paid only the rate of the regular employees.

Holidays.—Nearly all of the agreements specify certain holidays that are to be observed. The number specified ranges from 1 to 10, 6 being most frequently listed. Those usually specified are New Year's Day, Decoration Day, Independence Day, Labor Day, Thanksgiving, and Christmas. Less frequently Lincoln's Birthday, Washington's Birthday, Armistice Day, May First, and various local holidays, such as Admission Day in California, are included. The agreements covering Hebrew baking generally specify certain religious holidays, the most frequently specified being Rosh Hashonah and Yom Kippur.

Over half the agreements, including most of those that specify pay on a weekly basis, provide that the holidays shall be paid for at the regular rate. Generally it is provided that the maximum weekly hours allowed without overtime shall be reduced in holiday weeks. In a few cases it is provided that the employees shall work 1 or 2 hours additional on the day before a holiday without additional pay.

Generally provision is made for necessary work on holidays, but only upon payment of a penalty rate, which is most frequently double

time. Several agreements particularly specify that no work shall be done under any circumstances on the morning of Labor Day, so that no member shall be compelled to give up his participation in the parades or activities of that holiday.

SENIORITY

Seniority provisions are included in about one-third of the agreements. Most of these relate to lay-offs and rehiring. A number of the agreements with large bakeries, however, extend the principle of seniority to include promotions. The application of seniority in lay-offs and rehiring is generally mandatory, but in the case of promotions it is usually specified as a preferential factor to be given consideration by the employer. In respect to lay-off and rehiring, the agreements usually specify that its application shall be within the respective classifications or occupations of employees. In the case of promotions, plant-wide seniority is to be observed.

WORKING RULES

Shop restrictions.—A common provision in bakery agreements restricts the work to be expected of any member to that of his own craft. This is generally expressed by prohibiting the employer from requiring members to load or unload trucks, or to perform any other work not directly connected with baking.

A very small number of agreements specify the maximum number of batches of dough that a "set" or crew shall be required to complete during a shift. Several machine-shop agreements specify the minimum number of workers to be employed on particular machines or ovens, and a number provide for the periodic relief of workers on certain machines through exchange of jobs with other workers.

Part-time workers.—Part-time workers in bakeries are termed "jobbers," and their wage rates are generally specified on a daily basis. Frequently the daily rate provided for jobbers is higher than the equivalent rate for regular or full-time employees. A number of the agreements define a jobber as one who is employed less than 4 days in any 1 week, and some provide that any regular employee working 7 days in 1 week shall receive the jobbers' rate for the seventh day.

Discharges.—About half of the agreements contain provisions relating to discharges. As discharge is customarily considered a matter which any member may request his union to take up as a grievance, only a small number of the agreements specifically state this as a right.

Advance notice of discharge is required in most cases. The period ranges from 1 day to a full week. A few agreements specify that the notice shall be in writing and some require that a copy setting forth the reasons be furnished to the union. Failure to give the

required notice is usually subject to a penalty amounting to the employee's pay for the required period of notice.

A number of agreements specify that no employee shall be discharged other than at the end of the workweek, and a few covering Hebrew baking prohibit discharges during specified periods before designated religious holidays.

Very few of the agreements mention specific reasons for discharge, intoxication being the only cause listed in more than one or two agreements.

Relatively few agreements grant the employer an unrestricted right to discharge. In these cases the employers agree to exercise their right of discharge in a fair and just manner and to avoid arbitrary action.

Quit notices.—All of the agreements that require advance notice of discharge place a similar requirement of notice upon employees who desire to quit their jobs. Failure to give this notice subjects the employee to a penalty equivalent to his pay for the required period of notice.

APPRENTICES

Only a very few agreements specify the term of apprenticeship, the manner in which apprentices should be trained, or the method by which their qualifications for journeymanhood should be tested.

In about half of the agreements a wage scale for apprentices is established, and in about one-third the maximum number of apprentices allowed in any one shop is specified. One apprentice to each shift is frequently the limit, although the majority of the agreements specify the allowance as a ratio to the number of journeymen employed. These ratios range from 1 apprentice to 3 journeymen, to 1 to 10 journeymen, with ratios of 1 to 4, 5, or 6 predominating.

HEALTH, SAFETY, AND WELFARE

In most cities the laws covering sanitation in shops which prepare food for the public are sufficiently strict to make the inclusion of such rules in union agreements comparatively superfluous. Nevertheless, over half of the agreements do contain provisions requiring the employer to maintain his shop in a sanitary condition. A number of these also require each employee to maintain his personal cleanliness under penalty of union discipline.

About a third of the agreements require the employers to provide adequate lockers. Cool drinking water, comfortable ventilation, dressing rooms, and washrooms are also required under a number of agreements.

ADJUSTMENT OF DISPUTES

Union-management negotiations.—About one in every five of the agreements contain provisions for the appointment of shop stewards.

More than half of these provide that the steward shall be appointed by the union, some specifying that he shall be elected by the employees in the shop. In all cases it is understood or specifically stated that the steward is to be one of the regular employees of the shop. In most cases it is specifically stated that there shall be no discrimination against the steward because of his activity as such.

Generally the provision is for one steward in each shop. Occasionally a steward is required only for the larger shops employing five or more workers. Some of the large factory-bakery agreements call for a steward in each department of the plant. In some of the factory bakeries there are shop committees to supplement and assist the shop stewards.

The steward's duty is to see that the agreement is observed and to report any violations to the business agent of the local union. A few agreements with factory bakeries authorize the steward to take up grievances with the lesser officials of the firm.

In the majority of the agreements it is either implied or definitely stated that some union official, or the union's adjustment committee, shall represent the employees in grievance discussions with the management. Frequently, especially in the smaller shops, the specified union official is the business agent.

The factory-bakery agreements more frequently specify a series of successive steps to be followed in reaching the settlement of a grievance. A number specify that the steward and the aggrieved employee shall first present the case to the foreman and then to the superintendent. If satisfaction is not obtained, the matter is then referred to the union officers who carry the discussion to the higher company officials. In a few agreements it is provided that the shop committee shall succeed the steward after he has contacted the foreman or superintendent, and that the union officers shall participate only when the committee has failed to reach agreement with any of the management officials. Others of the factory agreements provide that the committee shall conduct all of the preliminary grievance discussions, the union officers assuming charge thereafter, if necessary.

Many of the agreements impose time limits at various stages of grievance discussion. It is frequently required that grievances be raised within a specified time after the occurrence of the event to which exception is taken and, when a sequence of procedure is specified, a time limit is often imposed upon the discussion at each stage.

A very small number of agreements specify that grievance discussions shall take place outside of working hours. Generally, however, the time for such meetings with the management is not mentioned.

Special handling of discharges.—Most of the agreements do not provide specific regulations covering disputes over discharges other than those applying to ordinary grievances. A few agreements, however,

definitely state that a discharged employee may appeal through the regular grievance procedure and a small number specifically state that discharge cases may be arbitrated if all other methods of settlement fail. A few set a definite time limit on appeals from discharge and some require a written statement of the reasons for discharge so that the employee may prepare his defense.

Arbitration.—Over half (99) of the 175 agreements studied provide for arbitration. A majority (58) of these specify that arbitration shall be resorted to after all attempts at direct settlement of grievances shall have failed. The others make no reference to previous negotiations.

Most of the arbitration clauses imply or specifically state that all grievances or disputes arising over the interpretation or application of the present agreement shall be subject to arbitration. Five agreements state that disputes over the terms of succeeding agreements shall also be arbitrated. One agreement restricts arbitration to discharge cases; one to new agreements only; and one excludes wages, hours, the system of substitutes, and the union shop from arbitration.

The great majority of the arbitration agreements provide for the creation of temporary arbitration boards as disputes arise. Only 13 require the appointment of permanent boards. Nearly all of these are agreements with employers' associations, covering all or most of the bakeries in a locality.

In most cases it is provided that the arbitration board shall consist, from the start, of an equal number of union and employer appointees, plus an impartial member who shall be chairman. Twenty agreements, however, specify that the board of equal union and employer members shall first attempt to reach an agreement and that the impartial member shall be appointed only upon their failure to settle the dispute.

The impartial member of the arbitration board is generally selected by the other members who are appointed by the union and the employers. Some agreements provide that in the event of failure to agree upon the impartial member, he shall be named by a specified outsider, usually a judge or public official. A few agreements contain only the reference to arbitration and do not specify how the arbitration board shall be constituted.

Requests for arbitration may come from either party. A few agreements specify that such requests must be in writing.

Most of the agreements (66) having provisions for arbitration specify time limits. These include the requirement that each party appoint his arbitrators within a specified time after arbitration has been requested; that the impartial member be selected promptly; that each side present its case to the board immediately upon being

called; and that the board render its decision within a specified time after the closing arguments have been presented.

Strikes and lock-outs.—Various restrictions are placed upon strikes and lock-outs in 71 of the 175 agreements. In 18 they are prohibited without reservation for the term of the agreement, and in 52 they are prohibited pending arbitration of disputes. Three agreements exempt general bakery strikes or lock-outs from the restrictions, and 16 specifically permit sympathetic strikes in support of other crafts employed in the same shops. In some cases a sympathetic strike is permitted only when the employer has refused to arbitrate with the other craft; two agreements specifically prohibit all sympathetic strikes. One agreement requires a week's notice before a strike or lock-out may be called.

Eight agreements provide that the employer shall not ask any union man to cross a picket line, and a considerable number require the employer not to furnish baked goods to any shop at which a strike or lock-out is in progress.

In addition to the restrictions upon strikes incorporated in the agreements, each local union is bound by the restrictions contained in the constitution of the Bakery and Confectionery Workers' International Union of America. These provide that every effort possible must be made to settle disputes without striking, and that a strike may be called only upon the affirmative vote of three-fourths of the members present at a meeting called for the specific purpose of voting upon the strike. It is further required that every member of the local must have been given advance notice, either in writing or in person, of the time, place, and purpose of the meeting. Any local union desiring strike assistance from the international union is further required to submit full details to, and to secure advance approval from, the international's general executive board.

AIDS TO ENFORCEMENT

Nearly all of the bakery agreements require that a signed copy of the contract be conspicuously posted in each shop, so that its terms may be familiar to all workers in the plants.

About four-fifths of the agreements specifically permit union officials to enter the shops to interview union members during working hours. Generally it is only required that proper credentials be shown. A small number require that the employer's permission be requested. Four agreements specifically provide that pay-roll records shall be open to inspection by the union.

Nearly all of the agreements, which include provisions concerning use of the union label, provide that this right may be withdrawn by the union upon the employer's violation of any of the agreement terms.

HOURLY EARNINGS IN HAT INDUSTRIES: A CORRECTION

THE October 1939 issue of the Monthly Labor Review contained (page 932) an article giving average hourly earnings in the four branches of the hat-manufacturing industry. Because of an error in the figures relating to the manufacture of wool-felt hats, that section of the table is reprinted below.

Average Hourly Earnings in Manufacture of Wool-Felt Hats, 1939, by Type of Plant, Skill, and Sex

Type of plant	All workers			Skilled workers: Male	Semiskilled workers			Unskilled workers		
	Total	Male	Female		Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
All plants.....	\$0.498	\$0.522	\$0.430	\$0.663	\$0.468	\$0.486	\$0.432	\$0.415	\$0.417	\$0.403
Back shops.....	.482	.500	.407	.660	.452	.467	.408	.402	.405	(1)
Front shops.....	.545	.608	.461	.671	.517	.590	.464	.451	.468	.424
Integrated plants.....	.496	.515	.432	.672	.463	.475	.433	.424	.426	.416
Back shops.....	.475	.485	.405	.676	.444	.451	.406	.409	.410	(1)
Front shops.....	.540	.610	.448	.667	.508	.590	.450	.456	.480	.425
Independent back shops...	.493	.530	.408	.642	.464	.502	.410	.391	.396	(1)
Independent front shops...	.571	.599	.531	(1)	.560	.591	.533	(1)	(1)	(1)

¹ Number of workers not sufficient to justify computation of an average.

SALARIES OF PUBLIC HEALTH NURSES, 1938

A SAMPLE study of the salaries of 8,868 of the 23,000 public-health nurses in the United States was made, in May 1939, by the National Organization for Public Health Nursing. Information as of December 1938 was requested. The resultant report, published in the November 1939 issue of Public Health Nursing, includes data on 597 public-health nursing agencies, of which 243 are nonofficial,¹ and 354 are official. Of the official agencies, 39 were State health departments, 196 were local health departments, and 119 were maintained by boards of education.

From January 1937 to December 1938, the median salaries of staff nurses increased 4 percent in nonofficial agencies, and 8 percent in local health departments. The increases in the median salaries of directors in the same period were 6 percent in nonofficial agencies and 7 percent in local health departments; and in supervisors' salaries, 3 percent in nonofficial agencies and 2 percent in local health departments. In table 1 the median salaries of staff nurses as of December 1938 are reported for different types of agencies, by geographical location, population served, and size of staff.

In nonofficial organizations the rate of pay is highest in the far West. Greater variations in salaries are shown in the health departments in various parts of the country, the median salary in municipal

¹ Privately administered and operating wholly or in part on private funds.

health departments being as high as \$160 in the Middle Atlantic region and as low as \$123 in the South.

The salaries of nurses in both nonofficial and health-department agencies are higher in the largest and smallest population areas than they are in the medium population areas.

TABLE 1.—Median Monthly Salaries of Public-Health Staff Nurses, December 1938

Item	Nonofficial agencies		Health departments				Combined agencies	
	Num-ber of nurses	Median month-ly salary	Municipal		County		Num-ber of nurses	Median month-ly salary
			Num-ber of nurses	Median month-ly salary	Num-ber of nurses	Median month-ly salary		
All sections.....	2,622	\$128	3,090	\$148	456	\$135	263	\$132
New England.....	480	129	270	151	7	125	48	129
Middle Atlantic.....	919	127	1,016	160	30	151	53	145
South.....	239	127	407	123	167	125	61	114
Middle West.....	856	128	1,153	147	61	153	83	133
Far West.....	111	133	244	155	191	146	18	150
Other.....	17	145						
Population served:								
1,000,000 and over.....	560	135	1,527	164				
500,000 to 999,999.....	479	128	583	132				
250,000 to 499,999.....	475	128	413	127				
100,000 to 249,999.....	512	124	262	135	98	153	167	133
50,000 to 99,999.....	252	122	186	128	193	136	74	118
25,000 to 49,999.....	178	124	68	130	108	131	22	137
Less than 25,000.....	125	131	51	146	57	132		
Rural.....	41	141			(1)	(1)		
Size of staff:								
100 persons and over.....	707	129	1,691	161				
50 to 99 persons.....	403	133	442	153	73	148	42	127
25 to 49 persons.....	399	126	379	125			128	130
10 to 24 persons.....	665	125	318	129	143	142	65	144
2 to 9 persons.....	422	127	247	128	231	129	28	136
1 person.....	26	151	13	142	9	145		

¹ It seemed expedient in the 1938 study to consider that for the most part, all county health departments were serving rural populations.

The rates of pay in nonofficial agencies show little variation for size of staff, except in 1-nurse agencies, in which the compensation is considerably higher. Differences in salaries are more marked in the health departments, in which the nurses on staffs of 100 or more are the highest paid. In the 1-nurse health-department agencies the salaries are conspicuously higher than in the services having 2 to 9 nurses.

In December 1938, the salaries of supervisors in local health departments were higher than in State health departments, and also than in nonofficial agencies, as shown in the following statement.

	Number	Median monthly salary
All agencies.....	999	\$166
Nonofficial.....	356	160
Official:		
Local health departments.....	346	175
State health departments.....	265	169
Combined.....	32	166

Directors and associate directors' salaries, as of December 1938, are reported in table 2, which shows that their compensation increases with the size of organization administered. Nonofficial organizations pay their directors higher salaries than local health departments.

TABLE 2.—*Salaries of Directors and Associate Directors, by Size of Staff, December 1938*

Size of staff	Nonofficial agencies		Health departments	
	Number of nurses	Median monthly salary	Number of nurses	Median monthly salary
Total.....	194	\$212	88	\$195
100 and over.....	11	361	9	256
50 to 99.....	13	325	9	219
25 to 49.....	21	254	11	222
15 to 24.....	31	261	10	217
10 to 14.....	33	204	13	204
2 to 9.....	85	185	36	171

According to reports from 119 boards of education, employing 1,078 nurses (including 42 directors and 8 supervisors), the median staff nurse's salary, in 1938, was \$1,677 per annum, the minimum being \$650 and the maximum, \$2,900. Of 109 nurses employed in the South, all but 1 received less than the median for the country. Salaries were highest in the far West, for which a median of \$2,024 was reported.



SALARIES OF Y. M. C. A. SECRETARIES

IN THE depression years the remuneration of Y. M. C. A. secretaries declined more rapidly than the cost of living, and budgets had to be balanced before salaries could be raised. In the fall of 1939, the median salary of new entrants in the service was reported to be \$1,273 per annum. The median salary of the association's 3,673 secretaries was \$2,436, the lowest fourth in the group being paid \$1,857 or less, and the top fourth from \$3,280 to \$12,000, according to a report on "Professional Opportunities in the Y. M. C. A.," published in the November 1939 issue of *Occupations—The Vocational Guidance Magazine* (New York), which includes the information here given.

The employing association fixes salaries. In general remuneration tends to increase with age and length of service. Salaries are ordinarily higher (for comparable duties) in the more important cities and vary somewhat according to geographical location. Account is also taken of educational preparation and specialized training. More often than not the financial compensation rises with change of position and field of work.

Opportunities for promotion seem comparable with those in educational agencies and in social work.

The associations are moving more and more with other agencies in the community towards the establishment of standards for securing "an adequate and continuing professional service and for the maintenance of a reasonable relationship between salary and competence." The salary policy of various associations calls for a yearly evaluation of the individual secretary and for adjustments in salary which are based on the secretary's success in his employment from a productive viewpoint, the extent of his responsibility and of his own personal development and other criteria of growth and achievement.

A secretary has a long span of hours during the day and he is likely to have varying hours of service with a substantial amount of evening work, his schedule calling at times for a longer workweek than that which generally prevails in the community.

In the last 10 years the tenure of association secretaries has lengthened and this trend is likely to continue because of the increased educational entrance requirements for this secretarial work and the institution of a 2-year junior-apprenticeship. Retirement pensions are provided at the minimum age of 60, the payments into the retirement fund for these benefits being approximately equally divided between the secretary and the association. Further protection may be had through voluntary membership in the Employed Officers Alliance, a mutual insurance scheme.

Labor Turn-Over

LABOR TURN-OVER IN MANUFACTURING, OCTOBER 1939

ALTHOUGH there was a slight decrease in the accession rate in manufacturing establishments in October 1939 as compared with the preceding month, and the total separation rate rose above that for September, the net increase of accessions over separations was greater than in any month during 1939, with the exception of September. The October hirings per 100 workers on the pay roll were 5.89 as against 6.17 in September; total separations were 2.91 compared with 2.79. The industries primarily responsible for the decline in the accession rate were automobiles and bodies, with a decrease from 17.67 to 9.93; automobile parts, falling from 16.55 to 9.56; and radios and phonographs, in which the rate declined still more sharply, from 16.50 to 7.74. Reduced production schedules in a number of seasonal industries were reflected in the higher separation rate.

Following the usual seasonal trend, the rate of voluntary separations in October showed a decline compared with that of the preceding month. Nevertheless, with the exception of September, the quit rate of 0.93 per 100 employees was above that for any month since October 1937. The discharge rate increased from 0.14 to 0.17 per 100 workers, and the lay-off rate, from 1.58 to 1.81. Outstanding increases in the lay-off rates occurred in the automobile parts industry, from 1.81 to 6.75, and in men's clothing manufacturing, from 1.62 to 6.47. On the other hand, pronounced decreases in the lay-off rates were shown by cigar and cigarette manufacturing, from 3.44 to 0.78; rayon and allied products, from 1.25 to 0.54; and woolen and worsted goods, from 3.80 to 2.13.

Scope of survey.—The Bureau of Labor Statistics' survey of labor turn-over covers approximately 5,500 representative manufacturing establishments, which in October employed more than 2,600,000 workers. The rates represent the number of changes in personnel per 100 employees on the pay rolls during the month.

The rates shown in table 1 are compiled from reports received from representative plants in 144 industries. In the 30 industries for which separate rates are shown (see table 2) reports were received from representative plants employing at least 25 percent of the workers in each industry.

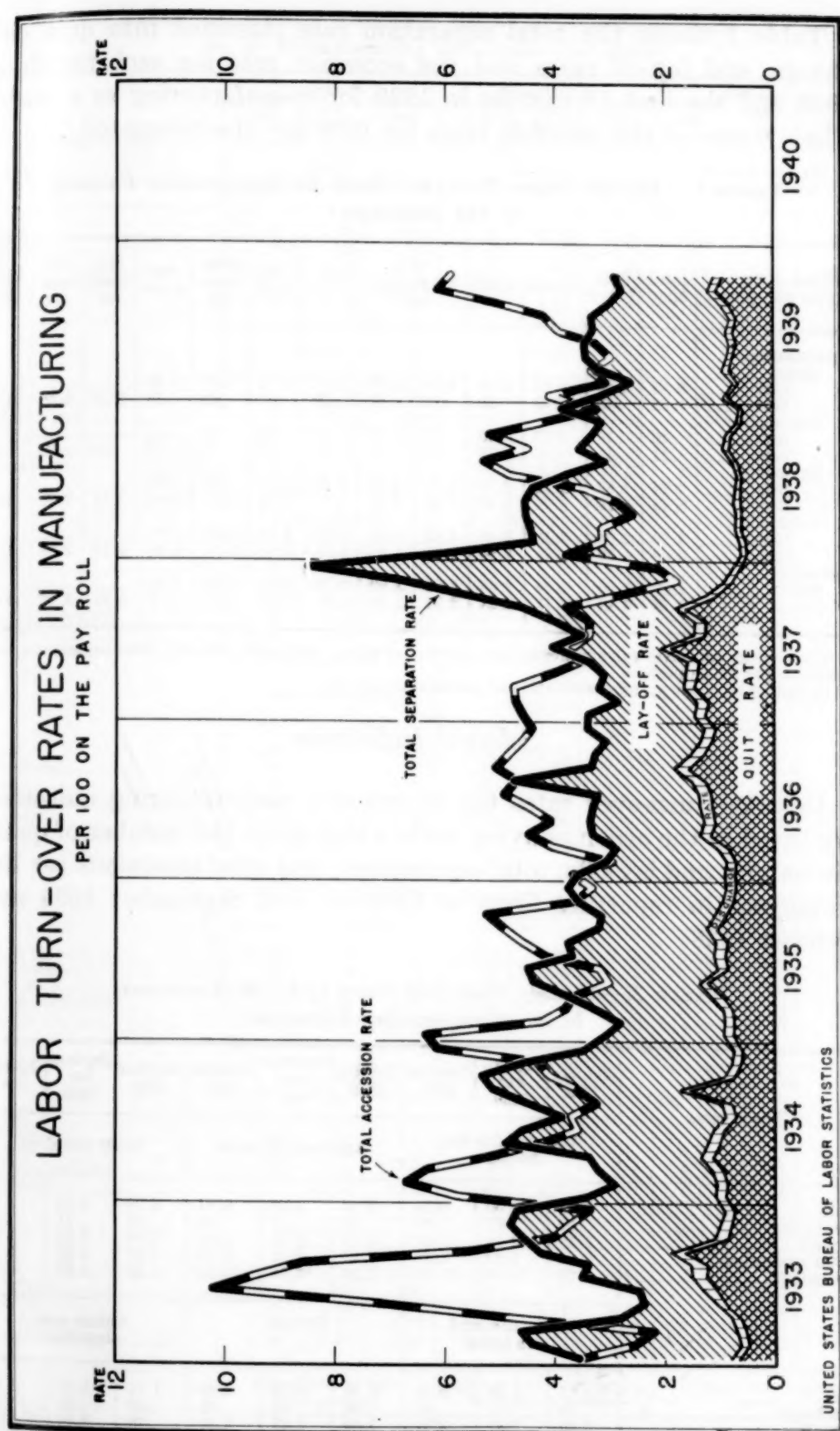


Table 1 shows the total separation rate classified into quit, discharge, and lay-off rates and the accession rate for each month of 1938 and the first 10 months in 1939 for manufacturing as a whole. The average of the monthly rates for 1938 are also presented.

TABLE 1.—*Monthly Labor Turn-Over Rates in Representative Factories in 144 Industries*¹

Class of turn-over and year	January	February	March	April	May	June	July	August	September	October	November	December	Average
Separations:													
Quits:													
1939.....	0.85	0.64	0.82	0.76	0.68	0.73	0.70	0.82	1.07	0.93			
1938.....	.52	.49	.61	.59	.62	.61	.59	.65	.82	.78	0.60	0.58	0.62
Discharges:													
1939.....	.10	.10	.13	.10	.13	.12	.12	.14	.14	.17			
1938.....	.11	.11	.11	.10	.13	.11	.09	.10	.12	.12	.10	.09	.11
Lay-offs: ²													
1939.....	2.24	1.87	2.23	2.60	2.67	2.46	2.54	2.05	1.58	1.81			
1938.....	5.45	3.79	3.74	3.85	3.82	3.69	3.13	2.33	2.62	2.40	2.44	3.21	3.37
Total:													
1939.....	3.19	2.61	3.18	3.46	3.48	3.31	3.36	3.01	2.79	2.91			
1938.....	6.08	4.39	4.46	4.54	4.57	4.41	3.81	3.08	3.56	3.30	3.14	3.88	4.10
Accessions:													
1939.....	4.09	3.06	3.34	2.95	3.29	3.92	4.16	5.06	6.17	5.89			
1938.....	3.78	3.13	3.13	2.58	2.84	3.44	4.81	5.29	4.51	5.19	4.24	3.22	3.85

¹ The various turn-over rates represent the number of quits, discharges, lay-offs, total separations, and accessions per 100 employees.

² Including temporary, indeterminate, and permanent lay-offs.

Selected Industries

Detailed turn-over rates for 30 selected manufacturing industries are listed in the accompanying table which gives the number of quits, discharges, and lay-offs, total separations, and total accessions per 100 employees in reporting firms in October and September 1939 and October 1938.

TABLE 2.—*Monthly Turn-Over Rates (per 100 Employees) in 30 Manufacturing Industries*

Class of rates	October 1939	September 1939	October 1938	October 1939	September 1939	October 1938	October 1939	September 1939	October 1938
	Automobiles and bodies			Automobile parts			Boots and shoes		
Quit.....	0.67	0.60	0.34	0.99	0.98	0.64	0.70	0.93	0.85
Discharge.....	.15	.07	.04	.23	.13	.14	.08	.11	.10
Lay-off.....	1.38	2.15	1.41	6.75	1.81	1.94	2.79	2.16	4.17
Total separation.....	2.20	2.82	1.79	7.97	2.92	2.72	3.57	3.20	5.12
Accession.....	9.93	17.67	21.62	9.56	16.55	15.14	1.60	1.82	1.57
	Brick, tile, and terra cotta			Cement			Cigars and cigarettes		
Quit.....	1.13	1.38	0.73	0.56	0.96	0.40	1.71	1.77	1.16
Discharge.....	.18	.11	.13	.06	.08	.03	.20	.21	.19
Lay-off.....	2.65	2.47	2.31	1.59	2.27	3.29	.78	3.44	1.37
Total separation.....	3.96	3.96	3.17	2.21	3.31	3.72	2.69	5.42	2.72
Accession.....	8.10	9.89	4.88	1.52	3.40	4.05	4.66	3.35	2.69

TABLE 2.—Monthly Turn-Over Rates (per 100 Employees)
in 30 Manufacturing Industries—Continued

Class of rates	October 1939	Septem- ber 1939	October 1938	October 1939	Septem- ber 1939	October 1938	October 1939	Septem- ber 1939	October 1938
	Cotton manufacturing			Electrical machinery			Foundries and machine shops		
Quit.....	1.56	1.70	1.15	0.74	0.89	0.48	0.71	0.75	0.39
Discharge.....	.22	.25	.17	.13	.10	.07	.15	.11	.06
Lay-off.....	1.08	1.01	2.07	.98	.62	.95	1.09	1.37	2.45
Total separation.....	2.86	2.96	3.39	1.85	1.61	1.50	1.95	2.23	2.90
Accession.....	5.66	6.56	5.05	7.29	4.64	5.38	7.85	5.41	3.33
	Furniture			Glass			Hardware		
Quit.....	0.94	1.06	4.09	0.46	0.62	0.49	0.89	0.79	0.43
Discharge.....	.23	.21	.31	.08	.08	.04	.40	.17	.11
Lay-off.....	.98	1.39	2.78	.66	.60	.59	.56	.55	1.07
Total separation.....	2.15	2.66	7.00	1.20	1.30	1.12	1.85	1.51	1.61
Accession.....	5.65	5.61	3.29	5.88	6.22	10.49	8.47	6.92	4.64
	Iron and steel			Knit goods			Machine tools		
Quit.....	0.57	0.59	0.41	1.25	1.22	0.74	1.38	1.38	0.52
Discharge.....	.09	.05	.03	.19	.19	.11	.14	.13	.06
Lay-off.....	.23	.36	.85	.69	1.20	1.11	.32	.55	3.43
Total separation.....	.89	1.00	1.29	2.13	2.61	1.96	1.84	2.06	4.01
Accession.....	8.20	10.23	2.51	3.60	3.85	3.37	7.92	5.34	2.60
	Men's clothing			Paints and varnishes			Paper and pulp		
Quit.....	0.80	0.88	0.74	0.98	0.86	0.32	0.75	1.11	0.53
Discharge.....	.10	.16	.27	.17	.28	.27	.13	.19	.21
Lay-off.....	6.47	1.62	5.64	.63	1.12	1.35	.65	.63	.94
Total separation.....	7.37	2.66	6.65	1.78	2.26	1.94	1.53	1.93	1.68
Accession.....	2.64	2.35	4.29	4.58	3.26	1.10	4.87	4.24	2.46
	Petroleum refining			Printing and publishing					
				Book and job			Newspapers		
Quit.....	0.35	1.26	0.30	0.64	0.62	0.53	0.20	0.30	0.27
Discharge.....	.04	.08	.06	.13	.13	.11	.20	.22	.05
Lay-off.....	1.79	1.75	1.39	2.66	2.70	2.74	1.81	.80	.88
Total separation.....	2.18	3.09	1.75	3.43	3.45	3.38	2.21	1.32	1.20
Accession.....	2.24	1.81	1.65	3.89	4.76	4.70	1.76	3.36	2.70
	Radios and phonographs			Rayon and allied products			Rubber boots and shoes		
Quit.....	2.27	2.10	2.28	0.72	0.81	0.78	0.84	1.01	0.65
Discharge.....	.29	.22	.17	.15	.19	.15	.07	.04	.02
Lay-off.....	.80	.86	1.46	.54	1.25	2.37	1.35	1.00	.44
Total separation.....	3.36	3.18	3.91	1.41	2.25	3.30	2.26	2.05	1.11
Accession.....	7.74	16.50	17.73	3.65	2.77	1.94	5.67	4.04	5.01
	Rubber tires			Sawmills			Silk and rayon goods		
Quit.....	0.53	0.75	0.41	1.37	1.92	1.59	1.24	1.30	1.05
Discharge.....	.06	.09	.05	.26	.18	.19	.11	.08	.04
Lay-off.....	.54	.64	1.33	1.93	2.74	4.70	1.85	2.54	4.21
Total separation.....	1.13	1.48	1.79	3.56	4.84	6.48	3.20	3.92	5.30
Accession.....	4.58	5.07	3.47	6.39	5.92	4.68	4.87	3.90	4.29
	Slaughtering and meat packing			Steam and hot-water heating apparatus			Woolen and worsted goods		
Quit.....	0.64	1.03	0.76	0.98	1.31	0.51	1.17	1.37	0.65
Discharge.....	.15	.11	.14	.18	.19	.13	.12	.08	.09
Lay-off.....	6.46	6.58	4.92	.49	.52	2.67	2.13	3.80	4.43
Total separation.....	7.25	7.72	5.82	1.65	2.02	3.31	3.42	5.25	5.17
Accession.....	9.44	9.25	8.77	6.03	5.36	1.36	7.92	5.99	10.12

LABOR TURN-OVER IN SAWMILLS, 1937 AND 1938¹

LABOR turn-over reports received from 205² identical sawmills² indicated that the number of separations decreased from 82 per 100 workers in 1937 to 63 in 1938, and accessions declined from 72 to 68 per 100 employees. In 1937, the total number of changes in personnel, therefore, was equal to slightly more than 1½ times the average number of workers on the pay roll, and in 1938, approximately 1⅓ times, or a decrease of nearly 15 percent in total changes.

An analysis of the various types of separations shows that in 1937, 27 percent of the total separations were reported as quits, and that the corresponding figure for 1938 was 19 percent. Discharges represented 4 percent in 1937 and 3 percent in 1938, and lay-offs represented 69 percent in 1937 and 78 percent in 1938.

As changes in the volume of voluntary separations may be considered a gauge by which to measure new employment opportunities, the decline in the percentage of quits is of particular significance. Of every 100 workers on the pay roll, 22 left their jobs voluntarily in 1937, as against 12 in 1938, indicating that new positions probably were more restricted in 1938 than in 1937. An analysis of the monthly quit rates in sawmills in 1937 discloses that high rates prevailed in the industry from April to October. The highest point of 3.17 per 100 employees was reached in September.

Sawmills Compared With All Manufacturing

Both sawmills and the manufacturing group as a whole had lower quit and discharge rates in 1938 than in 1937, but with the rates for sawmills consistently above those for the entire group of manufacturing industries. The reverse was true of lay-offs. The lay-off rate of 40.56 per 100 employees reported in all manufacturing in 1938 was greater than that of 35.67 in 1937, but a substantial decrease in this type of separations was indicated for sawmills in the 1938 rate of 48.88 as against that of 56.75 for 1937. Total separations declined in both groups: in all manufacturing from 53.06 to 49.29 per 100 workers, and in sawmills from 82.29 to 62.69. The accession rates, however, moved in opposite directions; in all manufacturing this rate rose from 42.47 in 1937 to 46.06 in 1938; but in sawmills it declined from 71.72 to 67.56. In 1937 the net change in employment, i. e., the difference between the accession and separation rates, was nearly identical in both groups, with separations exceeding accessions by 10.59 per 100 employees in all manufacturing, and by

¹ Prepared under the direction of Herman B. Byer, chief of the Bureau's Division of Construction and Public Employment. A previous article on labor turn-over in sawmills was published in the *Monthly Labor Review*, May 1935 (p. 1285).

² Primarily large mills.

10.57 in sawmills. The separation rate in all manufacturing again exceeded the accession rate in 1938, although by only 3.23, whereas the trend for sawmills was reversed, with accessions exceeding the separations by 4.87. The reasons for this difference are not evident at the present time.

TABLE 1.—*Labor Turn-Over Rates in All Manufacturing and in Sawmills, 1937 and 1938*

Industry	Separations								Accessions		Net change ²	
	Quits		Discharges		Lay-offs ¹		Total					
	1938	1937	1938	1937	1938	1937	1938	1937	1938	1937	1938	1937
All manufacturing.....	7.44	15.02	1.29	2.37	40.56	35.67	49.29	53.06	46.06	42.47	-3.23	-10.59
Sawmills.....	11.67	22.34	2.14	3.20	48.88	56.75	62.69	82.29	67.56	71.72	+4.87	-10.57

¹ Including temporary, indeterminate, and permanent lay-offs.

² Net change is the difference between the accession and separation rates. When the accession rate exceeds the separation rate, the difference is shown as +, and when the separation rate exceeds the accession rate, as -.

Turn-Over Rates, by Size of Plant

Higher total separation rates were registered in sawmills with fewer than 150 employees, principally as a result of the large percentage of lay-offs reported each year. The high lay-off rates were accompanied by high accession rates, indicating intermittent operations during the 2 years. As the lay-off and accession rates reported by the mills with an average of 150 or more employees were much lower than those of the mills with fewer than 150 workers, it seems that operations were maintained at a more constant level in the larger plants.

TABLE 2.—*Labor Turn-Over Rates in Sawmills, by Size of Plant, 1937 and 1938 ¹*

Class of turn-over	Rate per 100 employees in sawmills employing in—			
	1938		1937	
	Fewer than 150 employees ²	150 or more employees ²	Fewer than 150 employees ²	150 or more employees ²
Separations.....	97.18	58.48	102.74	79.73
Quits.....	13.03	11.50	19.99	22.63
Discharges.....	2.08	2.15	4.03	3.09
Lay-offs.....	82.07	44.83	78.72	54.01
Accessions.....	95.99	64.10	90.03	69.43

¹ The smaller mills employed 5,489 workers in 1938 and 6,679 in 1937. Mills with 150 or more persons on the pay roll had 45,002 employees in 1938 and 53,586 in 1937.

² 85 plants.

³ 120 plants.

*Distribution of 205 Identical Sawmills, by Turn-Over Rates,
1937 and 1938*

In 1938 nearly three-fifths of the mills employing one-half of the workers, and in 1937, two-fifths of the mills with approximately one-third of the employees, reported less than 10 quits per 100 workers. In the higher brackets, a marked change occurred in plants with a quit rate of 35 or more for every 100 employees. In this group, the number of mills decreased from 20 percent with 26 percent of the employees in 1937 to 6 percent of the plants with 4 percent of the employees in 1938.

The number of persons employed in mills with a discharge rate of less than 1 per 100 employees increased from 49.5 percent of the total in 1937 to 55.0 percent in 1938. In 1937 approximately 12 percent, and in 1938, 5 percent, of the workers were employed by mills reporting a discharge rate of 9 or more per 100 workers.

The greatest percentage of lay-offs occurred in mills having more than 60 and less than 90 of this type of separations for every 100 workers on the pay roll. In both years, approximately one-sixth of the mills, with nearly one-fourth of all workers in 1937 and one-sixth of all workers in 1938, were in this group.

Approximately two-fifths of the mills reported total separations of more than 40 and fewer than 120 per 100 workers in both years. These plants employed nearly 40 percent of all workers in 1938 and 50 percent of the total number of employees in 1937. A marked change was indicated in the number of workers in mills having total separations of 10 and less than 30 per 100 employees. The number of persons employed by these mills increased from 12 percent of the total in 1937 to nearly 30 percent in 1938. In the group with 120 to 150 per 100 workers, the number of plants decreased from 12 percent with 14 percent of all employees in 1937 to 5 percent with 7 percent of the total number of workers in 1938.

More than 50 accessions per 100 employees were reported each year in approximately 53 percent of the mills. In 1937 these plants had 57 percent of the total employment and in 1938, 48 percent. On the other hand, fewer than 20 accessions per 100 workers were reported by one-fifth of the mills having 22 percent of all workers in 1938 and one-sixth of the plants with only 11 percent of the employees in 1937.

The distribution of sawmills, according to their turn-over rates in 1937 and 1938, is shown in table 3.

TABLE 3.—Distribution of 205 Sawmills ¹ by Turn-Over Rates, 1937 and 1938

Class and rate of turn-over	Establishments				Employees			
	1938		1937		1938		1937	
	Simple per-centage	Cumulative per-centage	Simple per-centage	Cumulative per-centage	Simple per-centage	Cumulative per-centage	Simple per-centage	Cumulative per-centage
Quits:								
Under 2.5.....	32.7	32.7	21.5	21.5	23.8	23.8	17.0	17.0
2.5 and under 5.0.....	10.7	43.4	6.3	27.8	9.7	33.5	5.4	22.4
5.0 and under 7.5.....	6.8	50.2	6.3	34.1	7.2	40.7	6.3	28.7
7.5 and under 10.0.....	8.8	59.0	6.8	40.9	11.7	52.4	6.4	35.1
10.0 and under 15.0.....	13.7	72.7	13.2	54.1	22.1	74.5	12.6	47.7
15.0 and under 20.0.....	6.8	79.5	8.8	62.9	6.2	80.7	9.6	57.3
20.0 and under 25.0.....	4.4	83.9	10.2	73.1	5.8	86.5	9.4	63.7
25.0 and under 30.0.....	5.9	89.8	4.4	77.5	4.5	91.0	4.5	71.2
30.0 and under 35.0.....	3.9	93.7	2.4	79.9	5.2	96.2	3.2	74.4
35.0 and over.....	6.3	100.0	20.1	100.0	3.8	100.0	25.6	100.0
Total.....	100.0		100.0		100.0		100.0	
Discharges:								
Under 0.5.....	51.6	51.6	47.7	47.7	43.9	43.9	38.8	38.8
0.5 and under 1.0.....	8.8	60.4	7.3	55.0	11.1	55.0	10.7	49.5
1.0 and under 2.0.....	9.8	70.2	7.3	62.3	16.7	71.7	10.8	60.3
2.0 and under 3.0.....	5.4	75.6	8.3	70.6	6.8	78.5	6.1	66.4
3.0 and under 4.0.....	3.4	79.0	4.9	75.5	3.6	82.1	4.8	71.2
4.0 and under 5.0.....	6.8	85.8	2.0	77.5	6.2	88.3	7.6	78.8
5.0 and under 7.0.....	4.4	90.2	5.4	82.9	3.9	92.2	5.3	84.1
7.0 and under 9.0.....	3.9	94.1	4.9	87.8	3.4	95.6	4.1	88.2
9.0 and under 11.0.....	2.0	96.1	2.9	90.7	2.6	98.2	3.9	92.1
11.0 and over.....	3.9	100.0	9.3	100.0	1.8	100.0	7.9	100.0
Total.....	100.0		100.0		100.0		100.0	
Lay-offs:								
Under 5.....	10.2	10.2	12.7	12.7	10.7	10.7	9.2	9.2
5 and under 10.....	6.3	16.5	5.9	18.6	9.6	20.3	8.8	18.0
10 and under 20.....	9.8	26.3	9.8	28.4	15.4	35.7	8.2	26.2
20 and under 30.....	14.1	40.4	12.1	40.5	11.7	47.4	12.5	38.7
30 and under 40.....	7.8	48.2	7.3	47.8	10.5	57.9	9.1	47.8
40 and under 60.....	9.8	58.0	9.8	57.6	9.7	67.6	9.4	57.2
60 and under 90.....	16.6	74.6	16.5	74.1	15.8	83.4	23.1	80.3
90 and under 120.....	8.3	82.9	13.7	87.8	8.8	92.2	11.2	91.5
120 and under 150.....	7.3	90.2	4.4	92.2	3.6	95.8	4.5	96.0
150 and over.....	9.8	100.0	7.8	100.0	4.2	100.0	4.0	100.0
Total.....	100.0		100.0		100.0		100.0	
Total separations:								
Under 10.....	6.8	6.8	6.3	6.3	3.3	3.3	2.9	2.9
10 and under 20.....	7.8	14.6	6.8	13.1	12.5	15.8	7.1	10.0
20 and under 30.....	11.7	26.3	8.3	21.4	16.4	32.2	5.1	15.1
30 and under 40.....	9.8	36.1	8.8	30.2	12.6	44.8	11.2	26.3
40 and under 60.....	12.7	48.8	15.1	45.3	15.3	60.1	18.8	45.1
60 and under 90.....	18.5	67.3	17.1	62.4	17.2	77.3	19.7	64.8
90 and under 120.....	12.7	80.0	9.8	72.2	9.7	87.0	10.7	75.5
120 and under 150.....	5.4	85.4	12.2	84.4	6.5	93.5	14.2	89.7
150 and under 180.....	4.4	89.8	1.9	89.3	3.0	96.5	3.0	92.7
180 and over.....	10.2	100.0	10.7	100.0	3.5	100.0	7.3	100.0
Total.....	100.0		100.0		100.0		100.0	
Accessions:								
Under 20.....	20.1	20.1	16.0	16.0	21.6	21.6	10.7	10.7
20 and under 30.....	11.2	31.3	6.8	22.8	15.6	37.2	9.0	19.7
30 and under 40.....	8.3	39.6	13.2	36.0	9.3	46.5	15.1	34.8
40 and under 50.....	6.8	46.4	9.8	45.8	5.7	52.2	8.6	43.4
50 and under 70.....	10.2	56.6	14.1	59.9	10.9	63.1	19.3	62.7
70 and under 110.....	19.0	75.6	14.6	74.5	17.3	80.4	13.8	76.5
110 and under 150.....	10.7	86.3	13.7	88.2	9.3	89.7	14.6	91.1
150 and under 210.....	6.8	93.1	5.9	94.1	7.7	97.4	5.1	96.2
210 and under 250.....	1.5	94.6	3.9	98.0	0.6	98.0	2.8	99.0
250 and over.....	5.4	100.0	2.0	100.0	2.0	100.0	1.0	100.0
Total.....	100.0		100.0		100.0		100.0	

¹ These sawmills had 50,491 employees in 1938 and 60,265 in 1937.

Trend of Employment and Pay Rolls

SUMMARY OF REPORTS FOR NOVEMBER 1939

Total Nonagricultural Employment

EMPLOYMENT in nonagricultural industries decreased in November by about 100,000 from the mid-October level. Ordinarily employment is reduced by about 350,000 at this time of year because of seasonal curtailment in many industries. The smaller reduction this year indicates continued strength in the industrial situation, the principal declines being in construction and in transportation. Employment in water transportation has been adversely affected by neutrality legislation and by labor disputes, while class I railroads laid off about 17,000 workers, as a result of seasonal curtailment of maintenance of way activities. These figures do not include emergency employment which increased 157,000 in November as follows: 119,000 on projects operated by the Work Projects Administration, 15,000 in the Civilian Conservation Corps, and 23,000 on work projects of the National Youth Administration.

Industrial and Business Employment

Fifty-nine of the 90 manufacturing industries surveyed by the Bureau of Labor Statistics reported more workers employed in November than in October and 45 reported larger pay rolls. Of the 16 nonmanufacturing industries covered, only 3 showed employment gains and 5 reported larger pay rolls.

Although the net gain in factory employment in November was slight—about 17,000 wage earners, or 0.2 percent—it was noteworthy in that it marked the sixth consecutive monthly employment increase and was in contrast with an expected seasonal decline of 1.9 percent. Weekly wage disbursements in manufacturing industries were also larger by nearly \$400,000, or 0.2 percent, in contrast with an average October-November decline of about 3.0 percent.

The November factory employment level was 11.3 percent above that of a year ago and the pay-roll level was 20.6 percent higher. Both employment and pay rolls were at the highest levels since the autumn of 1937.

Among the more important employment increases (all larger than seasonal, or contraseasonal) were steel (27,200 wage earners); foundries and machine shops (16,700 wage earners); cotton goods (11,100); woolen and worsted goods (7,300); electrical machinery (6,900); slaughtering and meat packing (6,700); aircraft (5,400); brass, bronze, and copper products (4,100); cars, electric- and steam-railroad (3,700); machine tools (3,700); hardware (3,500); furniture (3,800); agricultural implements (3,000); book and job printing (2,500); and chemicals (2,200). The gain in the aircraft industry was the fourteenth consecutive monthly increase and brought the employment index for this industry to an all-time high, nearly three and a half times the 1929 average.

Employment declines, for the most part seasonal, were reported by 9 of the durable-goods group of industries and 22 of the nondurable-goods group of industries. Important seasonal declines were reported for canning and preserving (50,400 wage earners), women's clothing (13,100), boots and shoes (10,900), men's clothing (8,500), millinery (5,000), beverages (2,700), and baking (2,500). Employment in automobile factories showed a contraseasonal decrease of 5.2 percent, or 22,900 wage earners, as the result of labor disputes.

Employment in retail establishments showed a larger than seasonal gain of 1.7 percent, or 58,600 workers, and weekly pay rolls increased by 0.8 percent, or \$570,000. The general merchandise group (department stores, variety stores, and mail-order houses) accounted for virtually all of the employment gain in this industry. The delivery of new automobile models accounted for an employment increase of 0.8 percent in the automotive group under retail trade, while jewelry stores took on 5.8 percent more workers to handle holiday trade. Furniture stores added 1.5 percent to their personnel. Principal reductions were in lumber yards and in coal, wood, and ice establishments.

Wholesale firms decreased their forces slightly (0.1 percent) and reduced their weekly pay rolls by 1.2 percent, or \$579,000. Principal employment declines were shown by automotive firms and by firms dealing in farm products, groceries and food specialties, and dry goods and apparel. Among the more important fields of wholesale trade showing increases in employment were food products; machinery, equipment, and supplies; petroleum and petroleum products; electrical appliances and machinery; lumber and building materials; chemicals, drugs and allied products; and hardware.

Anthracite mines decreased employment by 1.1 percent and reduced their weekly pay rolls by 19.5 percent, or \$451,000, partly because of decreased production in the first half of November, caused by Election Day and the observance of Armistice Day. The number of workers in bituminous-coal mines was increased seasonally by 2.2 percent, or 9,200 workers, while their weekly pay rolls declined 0.9 percent, or

\$100,000. Metal mines increased their working forces contraseasonally by 1.6 percent, or 1,100 workers, and their weekly pay rolls by 0.4 percent, or \$10,000. The seasonal closing of quarrying operations in some localities resulted in a 2.1 percent employment decline and a 6.0 percent pay-roll reduction, these percentages being smaller than the average for November.

Employment in private building construction decreased seasonally by 3.1 percent and pay rolls by 3.6 percent from October to November, according to reports from 13,975 contractors employing 141,391 workers. These declines were smaller than in previous years. Largest employment declines of about 6 percent were in the North Central States, on the Pacific coast, and in the East South Central States. Smaller reductions of about 2 percent were reported in the Middle Atlantic and the New England States. Contractors in the West South Central and Mountain States reported decreases of 3 percent in the volume of employment. There was a substantial gain of about 20 percent in Florida and moderate increases in Maryland, West Virginia, and the District of Columbia, resulting in a 1-percent increase for the South Atlantic area. The reports on which these figures are based do not cover construction projects financed by the Works Progress Administration, the Public Works Administration, and the Reconstruction Finance Corporation or by regular appropriations of the Federal, State, or local governments.

A preliminary report of the Interstate Commerce Commission showed an employment decline by class I railroads from October to November of 1.6 percent, the total number of workers in November being 1,038,404. Corresponding pay rolls were not available when this report was prepared. For October they were \$171,966,431, a gain of 7.4 percent over the September figure.

Hours and earnings.—The average hours worked per week by wage earners in manufacturing industries were 38.6 in November, a decrease of 1.3 percent since October. The average hourly earnings of these workers were 65.3 cents, an increase of 1.1 percent as compared with the preceding month. Average weekly earnings of factory workers were \$25.78, showing no change since October.

Of the 14 nonmanufacturing industries for which man-hours are available, 4 showed increases in average hours worked per week and 7 reported gains in average hourly earnings. Five of the 16 nonmanufacturing industries surveyed reported higher average weekly earnings.

Employment and pay-roll indexes and average weekly earnings in November 1939 for all manufacturing industries combined, for selected nonmanufacturing industries, and for class I railroads, with percentage changes over the month and year intervals, are presented in table I.

TABLE 1.—*Employment, Pay Rolls, and Earnings in All Manufacturing Industries Combined and in Nonmanufacturing Industries, November 1939 (Preliminary Figures)*

Industry	Employment			Pay rolls			Average weekly earnings		
	Index November 1939	Percentage change from—		Index November 1939	Percentage change from—		Average in November 1939	Percentage change from—	
		October 1939	November 1938		October 1939	November 1938		October 1939	November 1938
	(1923-25 = 100)			(1923-25 = 100)					
All manufacturing industries combined ¹	103.8	+0.2	+11.3	101.8	+0.2	+20.6	\$25.78	0	+8.4
Class I steam railroads ²	58.1	-1.6	+8.1	(³)	(³)	(³)	(³)	(³)	(³)
	(1929 = 100)			(1929 = 100)					
Coal mining:									
Anthracite ⁴	51.3	-1.1	+6	42.0	-19.5	+16.0	26.90	-18.6	+15.3
Bituminous ⁴	95.0	+2.2	+7.2	96.7	-9	+18.9	27.84	-3.0	+10.9
Metalliferous mining	66.3	+1.6	+7.2	63.7	+4	+21.8	30.15	-1.2	+13.6
Quarrying and nonmetallic mining	47.0	-2.1	+5.9	42.9	-6.0	+15.1	22.07	-4.0	+8.7
Crude-petroleum producing	63.7	-9	-6.8	59.3	+7	-6.5	33.71	+1.6	+3
Public utilities:									
Telephone and telegraph	74.8	-8	+6	94.5	-7	+1.7	\$ 30.80	+2	+1.1
Electric light and power and manufactured gas	93.4	-1	+1.6	101.5	+5	+3.0	\$ 34.33	+6	+1.3
Electric-railroad and motor-bus operation and maintenance	69.8	-4	+4	70.6	-2.6	+2.6	\$ 32.81	-2.2	+2.2
Trade:									
Wholesale	92.4	-1	+2.9	79.3	-1.2	+5.3	\$ 29.94	-1.1	+2.3
Retail	89.9	+1.7	+3.5	74.8	+8	+4.6	\$ 20.82	-8	+1.1
General merchandising	110.4	+7.0	+5.6	95.8	+4.5	+4.4	\$ 17.30	-2.4	-1.2
Other than general merchandising	84.5	+1	+2.8	70.4	-2	+4.4	\$ 24.10	-2	+1.7
Hotels (year-round) ⁴ ⁷	91.9	-1.1	-6	81.9	-3	+8	\$ 15.53	+8	+1.4
Laundries ⁴	95.6	-4	+2.1	82.9	-1.2	+4.5	17.75	-8	+2.3
Dyeing and cleaning ⁴	99.5	-5.3	-3.0	72.1	-6.7	-2.3	19.95	-1.5	+7
Brokerage	(⁵)	-1.2	-7	(⁵)	-1.3	-2.3	\$ 36.17	-1	-1.6
Insurance	(⁵)	-2	+1.2	(⁵)	+2	+9	\$ 34.58	+4	-3
Building construction	(⁵)	-3.1	+5.1	(⁵)	-3.6	+12.4	30.89	-5	+6.9

¹ Revised indexes; adjusted to 1937 Census of Manufactures.² Preliminary; Source—Interstate Commerce Commission.³ Not available.⁴ Indexes adjusted to 1935 Census. Comparable series back to January 1929 presented in January 1938 issue of the pamphlet, *Employment and Pay Rolls*.⁵ Average weekly earnings not strictly comparable with figures published in issues of the *Monthly Labor Review* dated earlier than April 1938 (except for the January figures appearing in the March issue), as they now exclude corporation officers, executives, and other employees whose duties are mainly supervisory.⁶ Less than $\frac{1}{10}$ of 1 percent.⁷ Cash payments only; the additional value of board, room, and tips cannot be computed.

Public Employment

Because of seasonal influences and the fact that a number of projects are nearing completion, employment on construction projects financed from Public Works Administration funds declined from 221,000 in October to 204,000 in the month ending November 15, a decrease of 17,000. Wage payments of \$19,152,000 for the month were \$1,675,000 less than in October.

Further employment gains were reported on low-rent projects of the United States Housing Authority. The number of workers employed during the month ending November 15 was 30,000, an increase of 3,000 since October 1939. Pay-roll disbursements amounted to

\$3,615,000. These figures cover new construction and demolition and pertain only to those projects started under the United States Housing Authority; those formerly under the Public Works Administration are shown under the Public Works Administration building-construction projects in this report.

Decreased employment on construction projects financed from regular Federal appropriations resulted largely from the seasonal curtailment of work on public road projects. Decreased employment was also reported on a number of other types of projects. Among those on which increases occurred were building construction, rural electrification, and naval vessels. Total employment on these projects for the month ending November 15 was 276,000, a decrease of 12,000 from October. Pay rolls for the month were \$28,688,000.

Employment on construction projects financed by the Reconstruction Finance Corporation increased to 2,600 during the month ending November 15. Pay-roll disbursements for the month totaled \$309,000.

In November more workers were given employment on projects operated by the Work Projects Administration. Work relief employment on these projects rose from 1,826,000 in October to 1,945,000 in November, an increase of 119,000. Pay rolls of \$101,726,000 were \$3,183,000 more than in October. Employment on Federal agency projects financed by the Work Projects Administration increased 2,000 in November bringing the total up to 88,000. Pay rolls for the month were \$4,425,000.

Substantial gains were reported in November on work projects of the National Youth Administration and on the Student Aid program. Employment on the work projects increased 23,000, bringing the number at work to 261,000. Pay-roll disbursements totaled \$4,850,000. On the Student Aid program, employment rose from 356,000 to 423,000. Pay rolls for the month were \$2,959,000.

Enlistments in the Civilian Conservation Corps resulted in a gain of 15,000 in the number employed in camps during November. Of the 335,000 on the pay roll, 298,000 were enrollees; 300, reserve officers; 1,600, educational advisers; 300, nurses; and 34,800, supervisory and technical employees. Pay rolls for the whole group were \$14,868,000.

In the regular services of the Federal Government, increases were reported in the judicial, legislative, and military services while a decrease was reported in the executive service. Of the 933,000 employees in the executive service, 126,000 were working in the District of Columbia and 807,000 outside the District. Force-account employees (employees who are on the Federal pay roll and are engaged on construction projects) were 10.1 percent of the total number of employees in the executive service. Increased employment

was reported in the Post Office and Navy Departments and in the Panama Canal; decreased employment in the War Department, Federal Works Agency, Department of the Interior, Department of Agriculture, Tennessee Valley Authority, and the Department of Commerce.

As a result of seasonal influences employment on State-financed road projects was curtailed by 20,000 in the month ending November 15. Of the 138,000 at work, 23,600 were engaged in the construction of new roads and 114,400 in maintenance. Pay rolls for both types of work were \$10,409,000.

A summary of Federal employment and pay-roll data for November is given in table 2.

TABLE 2.—Summary of Federal Employment and Pay Rolls, November and October 1939 ¹ (Preliminary Figures)

Class	Employment			Pay rolls		
	November	October	Percentage change	November	October	Percentage change
Federal services:						
Executive ²	932,654	³ 937,576	-0.5	\$141,409,866	³ \$142,092,645	-0.5
Judicial.....	2,367	2,357	+ .4	570,908	569,870	+ .2
Legislative.....	5,583	5,418	+3.0	1,255,856	1,234,990	+1.7
Military.....	402,513	386,216	+4.2	29,686,462	29,819,814	- .4
Construction projects:						
Financed by PWA ⁴	204,036	220,612	-7.5	19,151,916	20,826,535	-8.0
USHA low-rent housing.....	29,562	26,523	+11.5	3,615,213	2,941,809	+22.9
Financed by RFC ⁵	2,638	2,470	+6.8	308,911	274,070	+12.7
Financed by regular Federal appropriations.....	276,073	288,497	-4.3	28,688,231	29,305,560	-2.1
Federal agency projects financed by the Work Projects Administration.....	87,955	86,168	+2.1	4,425,156	4,219,650	+4.9
Projects operated by WPA.....	¹ 945,352	1,825,734	+6.6	101,725,646	98,543,038	+3.2
National Youth Administration:						
Work projects.....	261,181	237,788	+9.8	4,850,311	4,432,127	+9.4
Student Aid.....	423,122	³ 356,040	+18.8	2,958,862	³ 2,350,905	+25.9
Civilian Conservation Corps.....	335,099	319,636	+4.8	14,868,058	14,342,739	+3.7

¹ Includes data on projects financed wholly or partially from Federal funds.

² Includes force-account and supervisory and technical employees shown under other classifications to the extent of 129,095 employees and pay-roll disbursements of \$16,415,643 for November 1939, and 133,421 employees and pay-roll disbursements of \$16,637,168 for October 1939.

³ Revised.

⁴ Data covering PWA projects financed from National Industrial Recovery Act funds, Emergency Relief Appropriation Acts of 1935, 1936, and 1937 funds, and Public Works Administration Appropriation Act of 1938 funds are included. These data are not shown under projects financed by the Work Projects Administration. Includes 12,439 wage earners and \$1,213,687 pay roll for November 1939; 13,347 wage earners and \$1,266,959 pay roll for October 1939, covering Public Works Administration projects financed from Emergency Relief Appropriation Acts of 1935, 1936, and 1937 funds. Includes 183,630 wage earners and \$17,180,040 pay roll for November 1939; 198,951 wage earners and \$18,589,415 pay roll for October 1939, covering Public Works Administration projects financed from funds provided by the Public Works Administration Appropriation Act of 1938.

⁵ Includes 973 employees and pay-roll disbursements of \$101,831 for November 1939; 559 employees and pay-roll disbursements of \$48,380 for October 1939 on projects financed by the RFC Mortgage Co.

DETAILED REPORTS FOR OCTOBER 1939

A MONTHLY report on employment and pay rolls is published as a separate pamphlet by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. This gives detailed data regarding employment, pay rolls, working hours, and earnings for the current month for industrial and business establishments and for the various forms of public employment. This pamphlet is distributed free upon request. Its principal contents for the month of October, insofar as industrial and business employment is concerned, are reproduced in this section of the Monthly Labor Review.

Industrial and Business Employment

Monthly reports on employment and pay rolls are available for the following groups: 9 manufacturing industries; 16 nonmanufacturing industries, including private building construction; and class I steam railroads. The reports for the first two of these groups—manufacturing and nonmanufacturing—are based on sample surveys by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. The figures on class I steam railroads are compiled by the Interstate Commerce Commission and are presented in the foregoing summary.

EMPLOYMENT, PAY ROLLS, HOURS, AND EARNINGS

The employment and pay-roll indexes, as well as average hours worked per week, average hourly earnings, and average weekly earnings for August, September, and October 1939, where available, are presented in table 1. The August and September figures, where given, may differ in some instances from those previously published, because of revisions necessitated primarily by the inclusion of late reports.

The average weekly earnings shown in table 1, are computed by dividing the total weekly pay rolls in the reporting establishments by the total number of full- and part-time employees reported. As not all reporting establishments supply man-hours, average hours worked per week and average hourly earnings are necessarily based on data furnished by a smaller number of reporting firms. The size and composition of the reporting sample varies slightly from month to month. Therefore the average hours per week, average hourly earnings, and average weekly earnings shown may not be strictly comparable from month to month. The sample, however, is believed to be sufficiently adequate in virtually all instances to indicate the general movements of earnings and hours over the period shown. The changes from the preceding month, expressed as percentages, are based on identical lists of firms for the 2 months, but the changes from October 1938 are computed from chain indexes based on the month-to-month percentage changes.

TABLE 1.—Employment, Pay Rolls, Hours, and Earnings in Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Industries

MANUFACTURING

[Indexes are based on 3-year average, 1923-25 = 100, and are adjusted to 1937 Census of Manufactures for all industries except automobiles. Not comparable to indexes published in pamphlets prior to August 1939. Comparable series available upon request]

Industry	Employment index		Pay-roll index		Average weekly earnings ¹		Average hours worked per week ¹		Average hourly earnings ¹	
	October 1939	September 1939	October 1939	September 1939	October 1939	September 1939	October 1939	September 1939	October 1939	September 1939
All manufacturing	103.6	100.2	96.3	93.8	\$25.80	\$24.72	39.1	38.0	64.5	63.5
Durable goods	96.1	89.7	83.9	87.9	39.72	28.18	40.2	38.2	71.2	70.3
Non-durable goods	110.7	110.2	108.1	100.5	22.03	21.54	38.2	37.8	58.0	58.3
Durable goods										
Iron and steel and their products, not including machinery.....	106.8	97.1	92.3	92.8	31.15	28.25	40.3	37.0	76.5	76.1
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills.....	113.1	101.1	97.0	95.3	33.91	29.77	40.0	35.2	84.8	84.5
Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets.....	113.4	100.7	96.9	111.1	26.90	25.90	42.8	39.2	68.9	68.7
Cast-iron pipe.....	76.6	74.6	75.3	62.9	22.60	20.48	38.5	34.9	58.3	57.9
Cutlery (not including silver and plated cutlery) and edge tools.....	103.9	96.9	92.1	84.7	23.75	22.72	41.5	39.3	58.6	59.0
Forgings, iron and steel.....	65.2	58.9	55.6	63.0	31.24	29.15	40.4	38.4	77.4	75.8
Hardware.....	99.7	94.2	75.6	113.9	27.13	29.85	40.2	41.4	67.6	72.2
Plumbers' supplies.....	82.1	79.5	77.8	71.8	28.18	26.13	41.3	38.8	68.3	67.4
Stamped and enameled ware.....	162.9	156.0	152.5	156.3	25.08	23.77	40.4	38.4	62.1	61.9
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings.....	86.4	81.2	78.4	71.3	29.49	26.84	41.8	38.6	70.6	69.7
Stoves.....	97.4	92.0	90.2	82.5	27.77	25.60	41.2	38.9	67.5	66.0
Structural and ornamental metalwork.....	76.3	73.8	71.5	63.3	28.87	27.62	39.9	38.3	72.5	72.1
Tin cans and other tinware.....	106.4	107.0	107.4	117.4	23.98	24.86	39.2	40.5	61.3	61.5
Tools (not including edge tools, machine tools, files, and saws).....	90.9	85.8	83.5	81.6	25.41	24.02	41.1	38.9	62.0	61.9
Wirework.....	165.9	144.9	116.1	161.4	27.47	27.70	40.3	36.8	68.2	70.4
Machinery, not including transportation equipment	106.6	100.3	96.8	100.9	29.20	28.23	40.6	39.1	72.1	72.3
Agricultural implements (including tractors).....	117.8	116.1	114.4	125.0	29.92	28.91	38.4	37.3	78.2	77.8
Cash registers, adding machines, and calculating machines.....	126.3	126.7	124.6	123.6	31.50	30.80	38.4	37.5	82.2	82.5
Electrical machinery, apparatus, and supplies.....	97.3	92.2	87.8	98.4	29.24	28.71	40.0	38.9	73.3	74.0
Engines, turbines, water wheels, and windmills.....	105.2	99.2	96.8	116.2	32.48	30.97	41.1	39.6	79.4	78.7
Foundry and machine-shop products.....	91.2	85.8	84.1	80.2	29.27	27.86	40.8	38.9	71.8	71.5
Machine tools.....	170.6	156.2	140.3	181.8	33.80	32.19	44.9	43.0	75.4	75.0

TABLE 1.—Employment, Pay Rolls, Hours, and Earnings in Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Industries—Continued

MANUFACTURING—Continued

Industry	Employment index		Pay-roll index		Average weekly earnings		Average hours worked per week		Average hourly earnings	
	October 1939	September 1939	October 1939	September 1939	October 1939	September 1939	October 1939	September 1939	October 1939	September 1939
Durable goods—Continued										
Machinery—Continued.										
Radios and phonographs.....	176.5	150.1	135.9	139.0	122.8	23.79	22.92	22.38	38.9	57.3
Textile machinery and parts.....	79.7	77.3	77.6	73.1	74.6	26.14	26.15	26.47	39.8	57.7
Typewriters and parts.....	124.1	122.0	117.9	122.2	116.5	24.88	24.58	24.24	38.5	65.0
Transportation equipment.....	105.0	96.9	75.2	110.6	78.3	33.87	33.42	33.71	37.3	63.8
Aircraft.....	1,556.4	1,466.5	1,413.5	1,361.6	1,380.9	30.30	29.07	30.59	41.8	88.9
Automobiles.....	107.4	98.5	70.4	114.2	75.0	34.86	34.63	35.15	37.9	74.8
Cars, electric- and steam-railroad.....	40.7	33.2	31.9	37.5	27.2	28.85	25.96	26.90	37.1	93.4
Locomotives.....	25.5	27.6	29.1	24.6	27.2	29.75	28.57	28.72	37.3	93.4
Shipbuilding.....	133.6	129.0	121.5	143.6	128.3	32.26	31.41	31.69	37.4	76.6
Nonferrous metals and their products.										
Aluminum manufactures.....	110.4	100.3	94.7	113.6	88.7	28.58	26.69	25.98	37.4	82.5
Brass, bronze, and copper products.....	168.1	150.9	154.0	190.8	163.2	27.70	26.97	25.86	39.0	67.1
Clocks and watches and time-recording devices.....	131.1	115.2	107.7	154.1	110.5	32.21	29.15	28.00	40.9	68.0
Jewelry.....	106.7	99.9	94.2	92.6	85.0	24.39	22.86	22.88	39.1	71.4
Lighting equipment.....	98.4	88.3	73.0	82.4	76.9	24.50	23.54	22.89	40.8	58.4
Silverware and plated ware.....	73.1	71.4	68.8	70.8	59.2	27.03	27.42	26.06	39.5	56.8
Smelting and refining—copper, lead, and zinc.....	82.8	77.4	74.6	81.3	70.8	27.20	25.85	26.64	41.4	69.3
Lumber and allied products.....	72.4	70.0	68.7	63.5	62.9	30.64	19.95	20.14	39.3	50.1
Furniture.....	94.6	90.7	87.5	84.9	73.5	21.72	20.95	20.90	39.8	52.9
Non-durable goods										
Textiles and their products.....										
Fabrics.....	108.3	104.5	103.5	93.6	88.2	17.60	16.91	17.20	35.5	48.6
Carpets and rugs.....	98.8	93.5	93.1	88.0	80.2	17.23	16.73	16.63	37.0	46.1
Cotton goods.....	83.2	78.3	75.6	74.8	63.5	25.01	24.28	23.34	36.8	65.9
Cotton small wares.....	94.3	89.4	87.3	84.2	74.7	14.62	14.49	14.01	37.8	38.4
Dyeing and finishing textiles.....	132.9	125.0	122.2	115.5	103.3	18.93	18.81	18.18	39.6	48.3
Hats, fur-felt.....	85.7	90.0	93.7	61.4	84.1	19.34	21.95	24.24	39.1	53.1
Hosiery.....	153.8	149.8	152.4	173.8	161.6	20.40	18.85	19.14	36.5	53.4

Knitted underwear.....	81.7	78.6	78.1	69.7	61.9	63.8	18.31	16.90	17.45	39.3	36.8	38.7	46.1	45.6	44.8
Knitted underwear.....	80.2	77.7	77.1	74.1	67.1	68.0	15.60	14.66	14.92	38.4	36.4	37.0	40.7	40.4	40.4
Knitted cloth.....	152.1	143.2	140.4	132.2	120.9	116.6	19.27	18.86	18.86	41.0	39.7	39.3	45.8	45.9	44.9
Silk and rayon goods.....	66.7	63.2	62.8	57.1	52.1	52.0	18.31	15.71	15.71	38.0	36.6	37.0	42.6	42.6	42.2
Woolen and worsted goods.....	90.9	82.1	86.2	76.6	67.6	71.5	19.46	19.00	19.18	37.1	36.0	36.3	42.5	42.9	52.9
Wearing apparel.....	124.7	124.8	122.1	98.6	92.1	98.3	18.68	17.40	18.77	34.5	32.8	35.0	51.9	51.9	51.9
Clothing, men's.....	109.4	110.6	110.2	82.9	79.6	86.3	19.67	18.62	20.24	33.6	31.9	34.7	57.9	58.0	57.8
Clothing, women's.....	178.2	178.8	174.3	133.2	118.1	132.9	20.00	17.56	20.14	33.6	31.8	34.8	54.0	51.2	52.4
Corsets and allied garments.....	117.6	115.9	114.0	126.5	120.3	112.2	17.78	17.13	16.27	38.6	37.4	35.2	45.6	45.4	45.8
Men's furnishings.....	143.7	132.6	131.2	142.9	130.7	120.1	15.33	13.99	14.05	39.0	35.7	36.2	45.6	45.6	45.8
Millinery.....	82.0	88.5	78.2	61.5	81.3	66.8	21.11	25.70	24.05	34.9	36.8	35.9	60.8	64.3	62.4
Shirts and collars.....	126.8	123.2	119.9	114.6	102.3	102.5	15.00	13.29	13.63	37.3	34.5	35.8	40.4	38.5	38.5
Leather and its manufactures.....	94.2	97.8	100.7	76.5	76.6	84.6	18.74	18.45	18.78	36.3	34.8	37.7	53.2	53.2	52.6
Boots and shoes.....	94.1	96.5	100.3	71.1	72.4	82.9	17.20	17.04	18.74	34.3	33.9	37.5	50.8	50.8	50.2
Leather.....	88.4	86.5	85.5	88.2	84.2	83.1	24.91	24.32	24.29	39.4	38.6	38.6	63.3	63.3	63.3
Food and kindred products.....	137.5	150.7	147.0	129.8	139.6	135.1	24.35	24.16	23.95	40.5	41.6	40.5	60.8	58.5	59.6
Baking.....	148.0	148.0	146.9	136.6	138.8	135.3	23.65	26.00	25.49	41.4	42.1	41.1	62.3	62.0	62.4
Beverages.....	270.9	287.4	295.4	309.0	335.5	350.2	33.29	34.04	34.74	38.7	39.8	40.4	87.1	86.4	86.8
Butter.....	95.0	99.1	102.9	81.6	83.8	86.7	22.99	22.72	22.57	47.2	47.1	47.2	48.3	47.9	47.9
Canning and preserving.....	180.7	303.7	288.5	154.1	264.3	251.1	16.87	17.32	17.24	38.1	41.0	39.5	45.7	43.2	44.7
Confectionery.....	96.6	91.4	78.5	95.8	91.5	76.7	19.26	19.43	18.93	40.7	40.6	37.9	48.0	48.6	50.6
Flour.....	82.4	84.4	79.9	82.1	93.0	76.8	27.06	25.43	25.95	43.1	46.9	42.4	61.4	62.0	60.5
Ice cream.....	73.0	82.3	89.4	62.2	68.6	74.2	29.97	29.31	29.29	46.3	46.1	46.8	63.9	63.1	62.3
Slaughter and meat packing.....	102.7	101.3	100.2	107.7	107.9	105.8	27.60	27.99	27.77	40.3	40.8	40.4	68.5	68.6	68.8
Sugar, beet.....	286.5	120.8	88.3	244.9	116.6	85.7	22.25	25.12	25.22	42.3	42.1	40.1	52.6	61.4	63.8
Sugar refining, cane.....	100.9	90.7	98.6	86.5	86.3	80.8	24.12	26.75	23.05	38.1	43.0	36.6	63.3	62.2	63.0
Tobacco manufactures.....	66.7	66.4	66.6	63.4	62.9	62.7	17.57	17.43	17.43	37.0	36.9	36.9	47.5	47.5	47.2
Chewing and smoking tobacco and snuff.....	62.4	61.2	60.7	71.0	67.2	67.3	18.47	17.69	18.04	35.2	34.4	34.9	52.4	51.3	51.7
Cigars and cigarettes.....	67.2	67.0	67.3	62.4	62.3	62.1	17.36	17.37	17.30	37.2	37.2	37.1	46.9	47.0	46.7
Paper and printing.....	116.5	113.2	110.9	113.8	109.3	103.7	29.40	28.89	28.04	39.7	39.0	38.1	77.3	77.4	76.8
Boxes, paper.....	128.3	118.8	114.3	150.6	133.2	124.6	23.46	22.28	21.71	43.4	41.3	40.2	54.6	54.4	54.4
Paper and pulp.....	113.6	108.8	107.0	125.6	113.4	107.7	27.19	25.64	24.65	43.2	41.4	39.9	62.9	62.0	61.8
Printing and publishing.....	99.1	98.3	98.3	84.4	85.6	83.4	29.75	30.38	29.78	37.8	38.3	37.8	80.1	80.5	79.7
Book and job.....	117.2	116.2	112.0	110.4	109.8	102.2	37.92	38.03	36.75	36.2	36.3	35.7	101.3	100.7	99.8
Newspapers and periodicals.....	122.0	117.7	109.2	133.1	134.5	119.0	29.50	29.86	29.49	39.8	38.8	38.4	74.0	74.1	76.6
Chemical, petroleum, and coal products.....	122.7	123.1	122.7	140.0	134.8	135.9	35.77	34.36	34.76	36.9	35.6	35.8	97.4	96.9	97.5
Petroleum refining.....	121.8	116.4	105.9	131.0	121.3	113.8	26.94	26.46	26.99	40.8	39.9	39.5	65.9	65.8	68.0
Other than petroleum refining.....	133.6	123.6	119.1	157.9	139.7	136.3	32.51	31.08	31.48	41.2	39.8	40.1	78.9	78.1	78.5
Chemicals.....	130.8	113.3	113.3	113.0	94.0	47.5	14.21	14.06	13.69	48.5	48.7	42.3	28.6	28.4	31.0
Cottonseed—oil, cake, and meal.....	116.7	113.9	109.9	133.0	123.8	121.2	24.65	25.15	25.65	41.5	39.3	39.9	59.5	59.6	59.9
Druggists' preparations.....	104.2	99.9	93.3	125.2	114.4	109.1	33.07	31.52	32.20	39.9	39.0	40.2	83.0	80.7	80.2
Explosives.....	98.5	98.4	73.9	79.8	86.3	62.7	14.91	16.27	15.70	35.5	36.8	35.2	44.2	44.6	44.6
Fertilizers.....	125.1	122.1	122.1	134.6	127.5	125.6	29.46	28.65	28.47	41.4	40.7	40.3	71.2	70.4	70.7
Paints and varnishes.....	310.8	300.2	255.1	303.4	286.4	246.6	27.87	28.33	27.83	40.0	38.7	38.6	64.5	64.6	64.3
Rayon and allied products.....	90.4	88.5	86.0	109.0	107.1	102.3	27.00	26.49	26.49	39.7	40.3	39.7	69.6	70.3	70.1
Soap.....	92.4	86.0	82.6	101.9	91.0	86.3	30.11	28.93	28.92	39.2	37.6	37.0	78.9	78.8	77.0
Rubber products.....	62.2	59.8	58.5	62.2	62.2	58.4	23.45	23.89	22.92	38.4	38.8	37.3	61.1	61.6	61.5
Rubber boots and shoes.....	73.6	70.0	68.3	90.6	82.7	78.9	35.91	34.55	33.77	37.5	36.2	35.5	96.1	95.9	95.6
Rubber tires and inner tubes.....	157.5	141.6	132.9	161.2	134.9	127.1	25.01	23.20	23.23	41.3	38.8	38.8	61.2	60.3	60.5

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 1.—Employment, Pay Rolls, Hours, and Earnings in Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Industries—Continued

NONMANUFACTURING

[Indexes are based on 12-month average, 1929=100]

Industry	Employment index			Pay-roll index			Average weekly earnings			Average hours worked per week			Average hourly earnings		
	October 1939	September 1939	August 1939	October 1939	September 1939	August 1939	October 1939	September 1939	August 1939	October 1939	September 1939	August 1939	October 1939	September 1939	August 1939
Coal mining:															
Anthracite ¹	51.9	49.4	48.5	52.2	40.1	33.8	\$33.03	\$26.64	\$23.13	35.6	28.4	24.2	Cents 93.0	Cents 92.0	Cents 92.8
Bituminous ¹	93.2	85.4	81.4	97.7	80.2	74.6	28.70	25.51	24.61	32.7	28.5	27.4	88.7	89.6	89.0
Metalliferous mining	65.4	62.9	60.4	63.7	55.1	53.0	30.63	27.60	27.47	42.4	39.6	39.5	72.7	70.1	70.1
Quarrying and nonmetallic mining	47.8	47.9	48.1	45.1	42.7	42.9	23.00	22.25	22.17	42.5	40.4	40.5	53.6	54.9	54.6
Crude-petroleum producing	64.4	65.0	66.7	59.0	60.8	62.0	32.80	34.33	34.18	37.7	38.3	38.8	87.7	87.8	86.4
Public utilities:															
Telephone and telegraph ¹	75.4	75.3	75.5	95.2	94.9	94.3	31.25	31.22	30.92	39.1	39.5	39.1	80.5	79.6	79.7
Electric light and power and manufactured gas ¹	93.5	93.7	93.8	101.0	101.0	101.1	33.28	33.73	33.59	39.5	39.5	40.0	83.4	85.2	84.2
Electric-railroad and motor-bus operation and maintenance ¹	70.0	69.8	69.8	72.3	70.4	71.0	33.49	32.91	33.17	46.5	45.4	46.0	70.8	71.5	71.2
Trade:															
Wholesale ¹	92.5	90.5	89.0	80.3	78.0	76.2	30.29	29.99	29.82	42.1	41.6	41.9	71.8	71.6	71.1
Retail ¹	88.4	87.3	82.5	74.1	72.3	69.4	21.17	20.95	21.39	42.7	42.5	42.8	55.1	54.7	55.3
General merchandising ¹	103.2	100.1	89.8	91.7	88.3	81.1	17.71	17.62	18.07	39.0	38.9	38.5	48.4	48.0	50.1
Other than general merchandising ¹	84.5	83.9	80.6	70.5	69.0	67.0	24.16	23.77	23.99	43.9	43.6	44.0	57.2	56.8	56.8
Hotels (year-round) ¹	92.8	91.3	89.8	82.2	80.4	79.2	15.27	15.25	15.20	46.6	46.5	47.1	32.5	32.6	32.2
Laundries ¹	96.1	97.8	99.1	83.9	84.5	85.9	17.90	17.59	17.58	42.7	42.5	42.9	41.4	41.4	41.0
Dyeing and cleaning ¹	105.1	105.2	102.7	77.3	78.3	73.0	20.42	20.48	19.42	42.3	42.7	41.6	49.3	49.3	48.3
Brokerage ¹	-1.0	+8.1	+1	-1.6	+10.6	-1.4	36.76	36.31	35.32	(6)	(6)	(6)	(6)	(6)	(6)
Insurance ¹	-1	-4	+1	+5	-4	-9	34.47	35.94	35.77	(6)	(6)	(6)	(6)	(6)	(6)
Building construction ¹	-6	+6	+8	-1.0	+1.5	+1.2	31.08	31.05	30.91	34.0	33.9	33.5	91.6	91.8	92.4

¹ Revised series for "all manufacturing," for various groups under manufacturing, for sawmills, fertilizers, soap, and telephone and telegraph. Mimeographed sheets giving averages for these, as well as for the remaining industries covered, by years, 1932 to 1938, inclusive, and by months, January 1938 to September 1939, inclusive, available on request. Average weekly earnings are computed from figures furnished by all reporting establishments. Average hours and average hourly earnings are computed from data supplied by a smaller number of establishments, as not all reporting firms furnish man-hours. The figures are not strictly comparable from month to month because of changes in the size and composition of the reporting sample.

² Indexes adjusted to 1935 census. Comparable series back to January 1929 presented in January 1938 issue of this publication.

³ Average weekly earnings, hourly earnings, and hours not strictly comparable with figures published in pamphlets prior to January 1938 as they now exclude corporation officers, executives, and other employees whose duties are mainly supervisory.

⁴ Cash payments only; the additional value of board, room, and tips cannot be computed.

⁵ Indexes of employment and pay rolls are not available, percentage changes from preceding month substituted.

⁶ Not available.

INDEXES OF EMPLOYMENT AND PAY ROLLS

Indexes of employment and pay rolls are given in table 2 for all manufacturing industries combined, for the durable- and nondurable-goods groups of manufacturing industries, and for each of 13 non-manufacturing industries, including 2 subgroups under retail trade, by months, from October 1938 to October 1939, inclusive. The accompanying chart indicates the trend of factory employment and pay rolls from January 1919 to October 1939.

The indexes of factory employment and pay rolls are based on the 3-year average 1923-25 as 100. They relate to wage earners only and are computed from reports supplied by representative manufacturing establishments in 90 manufacturing industries. These reports cover more than 55 percent of the total wage earners in all manufacturing industries of the country and more than 65 percent of the wage earners in the 90 industries included in the monthly survey of the Bureau of Labor Statistics.

The indexes for the nonmanufacturing industries are based on the 12-month average for 1929 as 100. Figures for mining, laundries, and dyeing and cleaning cover wage earners only, but the figures for public utilities, trade, and hotels relate to all employees except corporation officers, executives, and other employees whose duties are mainly supervisory. For crude-petroleum production they cover wage earners and the clerical field force. The coverage of the reporting samples for the various nonmanufacturing industries ranges from approximately 25 percent for wholesale trade and dyeing and cleaning to approximately 80 percent for quarrying and nonmetallic mining, anthracite mining, and public utilities.

Data for both manufacturing and nonmanufacturing industries are based on reports of the number of employees and amount of pay rolls for the pay period ending nearest the 15th of the month.

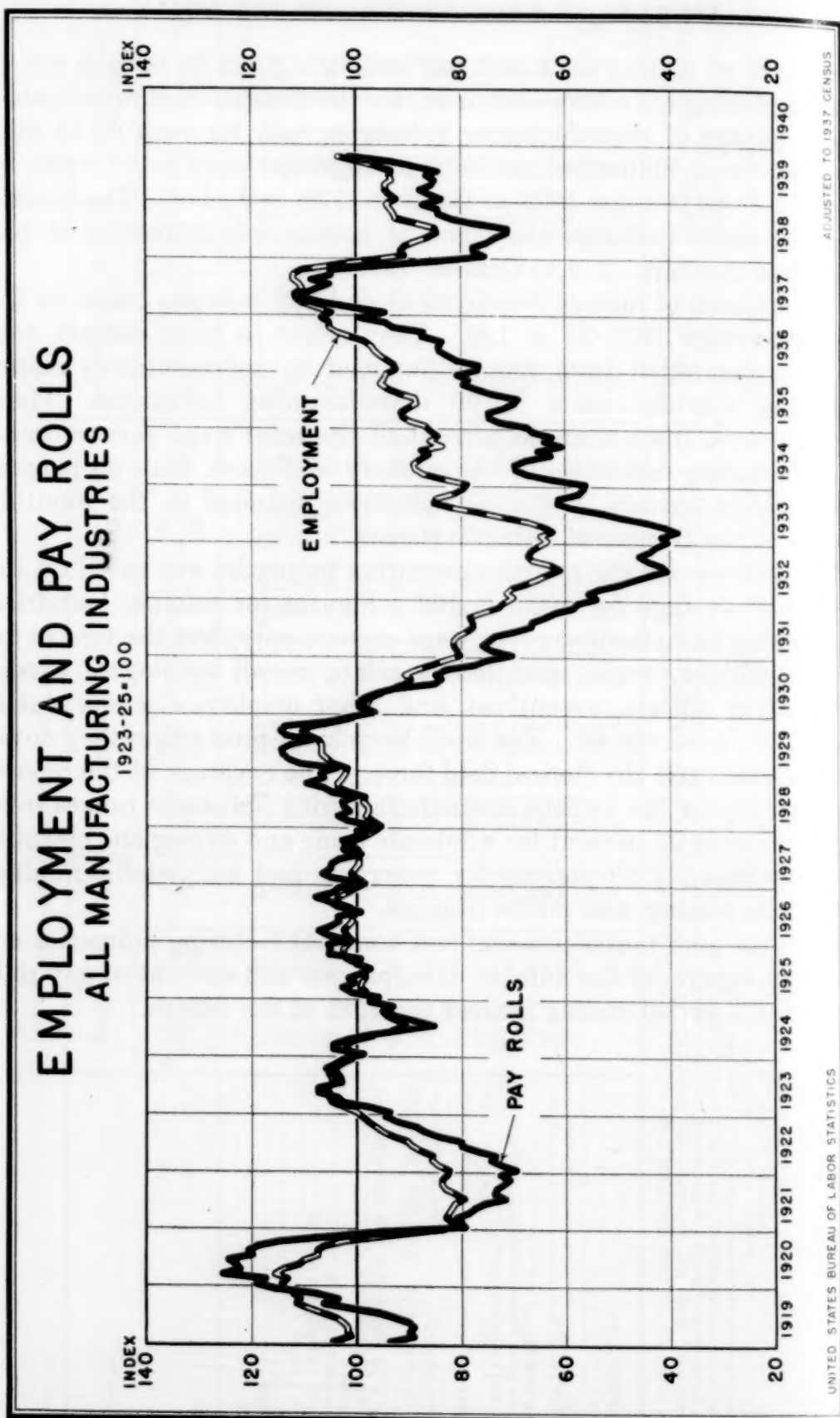


TABLE 2.—Indexes of Employment and Pay Rolls in Selected Manufacturing¹ and Non-manufacturing² Industries, October 1938 to October 1939, Inclusive

Industry	Employment													
	Av. 1938	1938			1939									
		Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.
Manufacturing														
All industries.....	89.7	92.4	93.3	94.0	92.2	93.6	94.3	94.1	93.0	93.4	93.5	96.3	100.2	103.6
Durable goods ³	77.9	79.7	82.9	83.8	82.3	83.3	84.1	84.8	84.0	84.6	83.0	83.9	89.7	96.1
Nondurable goods ⁴	100.9	104.6	103.1	103.8	101.7	103.5	104.0	103.0	101.6	101.8	103.5	108.1	110.2	110.7
Nonmanufacturing														
Anthracite mining.....	52.3	52.4	51.0	51.3	50.0	52.2	51.7	53.0	52.6	51.2	44.7	48.5	49.4	51.9
Bituminous-coal mining.....	86.7	87.2	88.6	89.3	88.7	88.6	87.4	25.9	47.9	78.3	79.4	81.4	85.4	93.2
Metalliferous mining.....	59.0	57.9	61.9	62.3	62.6	60.9	61.0	61.5	61.9	61.6	60.4	60.4	62.9	65.4
Quarrying and nonmetallic mining.....	42.3	44.4	44.4	41.4	38.3	37.9	40.1	43.0	45.6	47.3	47.5	48.1	47.9	47.8
Crude-petroleum producing.....	72.1	69.5	68.3	67.8	67.0	66.4	66.2	65.8	66.1	67.0	67.3	66.7	65.0	64.4
Telephone and telegraph.....	75.1	74.7	74.4	74.3	74.1	73.3	73.4	74.1	74.7	75.3	75.4	75.5	75.3	75.4
Electric light and power, and manufactured gas.....	92.3	92.5	91.9	91.4	90.0	89.6	89.5	90.3	91.0	92.3	93.2	93.8	93.7	93.5
Electric-railroad and motorbus operation and maintenance.....	70.3	69.9	69.5	69.4	69.2	69.3	69.5	69.1	69.6	69.9	69.7	69.8	69.8	70.0
Wholesale trade.....	88.8	89.1	89.8	90.0	88.3	87.9	87.4	87.3	87.2	88.1	87.9	89.0	90.5	92.5
Retail trade.....	85.2	85.9	86.9	98.1	82.2	81.5	83.8	85.5	85.7	86.4	83.6	82.5	87.3	88.4
General merchandising.....	98.0	99.4	104.5	144.1	90.7	88.8	93.2	96.9	96.8	97.4	91.7	89.8	100.1	103.2
Other than general merchandising.....	81.8	82.3	82.3	86.0	80.0	79.6	81.3	82.5	82.8	83.5	81.5	80.6	83.9	84.5
Year-round hotels.....	92.7	92.9	92.5	92.0	91.8	92.6	92.7	93.2	93.9	92.8	90.3	89.8	91.3	92.8
Laundries.....	95.7	94.4	93.7	93.4	93.3	92.8	92.9	93.5	95.5	98.7	100.0	99.1	97.8	96.1
Dyeing and cleaning.....	104.3	106.8	102.5	97.9	94.2	92.1	95.4	102.2	107.0	110.1	106.5	102.7	105.2	105.1
Pay rolls														
Manufacturing														
All industries.....	77.9	84.2	84.4	87.1	83.7	86.0	87.6	85.5	85.0	86.5	84.4	89.7	93.8	101.6
Durable goods ³	67.6	74.6	77.6	79.6	76.0	77.7	79.4	79.5	78.8	80.7	76.0	81.5	87.9	99.7
Nondurable goods ⁴	89.6	94.9	92.1	95.4	92.4	95.3	96.7	92.2	91.9	93.0	93.7	99.0	100.5	103.8
Nonmanufacturing														
Anthracite mining.....	38.2	43.4	36.2	42.5	38.0	45.2	34.2	43.4	57.0	36.1	25.2	33.8	40.1	52.2
Bituminous-coal mining.....	67.9	78.3	81.4	80.9	78.2	81.2	77.8	17.6	20.4	66.5	64.5	74.6	80.2	97.7
Metalliferous mining.....	50.4	49.2	52.3	54.1	55.3	53.4	53.6	52.6	54.1	53.8	48.5	53.0	55.1	63.7
Quarrying and nonmetallic mining.....	35.1	39.2	37.2	33.7	30.2	29.7	33.1	35.9	39.7	41.7	40.9	42.9	42.7	45.1
Crude-petroleum producing.....	66.5	63.7	63.3	62.5	60.9	62.7	61.3	60.8	61.2	62.5	61.9	62.0	60.8	59.0
Telephone and telegraph.....	92.1	95.3	93.0	92.5	92.0	91.7	91.9	92.1	93.7	93.7	94.6	94.3	94.9	95.2
Electric light and power, and manufactured gas.....	98.5	99.9	98.6	98.2	95.9	96.4	96.7	96.9	98.8	100.2	100.0	101.1	101.0	101.0
Electric-railroad and motorbus operation and maintenance.....	69.7	68.9	68.8	69.7	71.1	69.9	70.5	69.6	70.1	71.2	70.6	71.0	70.4	72.3
Wholesale trade.....	74.7	75.1	75.4	75.7	75.5	74.6	74.7	74.8	74.9	75.8	75.8	76.2	78.0	80.3
Retail trade.....	70.4	70.8	71.5	79.2	69.7	68.4	69.6	71.3	71.5	72.5	70.9	69.4	72.3	74.1
General merchandising.....	87.8	88.3	91.8	122.9	84.0	81.0	83.4	86.6	86.7	88.1	83.8	81.1	88.3	91.7
Other than general merchandising.....	66.8	67.2	67.3	70.1	66.7	65.8	66.8	68.1	68.3	69.3	68.2	67.0	69.0	70.5
Year-round hotels.....	80.3	80.8	81.3	81.1	80.2	82.8	81.1	81.9	82.4	82.0	79.1	79.2	80.4	82.2
Laundries.....	80.6	79.5	79.3	80.0	79.6	78.6	79.3	79.9	83.9	86.9	88.0	85.9	84.5	83.9
Dyeing and cleaning.....	75.3	78.0	73.9	68.3	65.8	63.2	67.7	73.3	83.0	84.2	77.1	73.0	78.3	77.3

¹ 3-year average, 1923-25=100—adjusted to 1937 Census of Manufactures.² 12-month average for 1929=100. Comparable indexes are in November 1934 and subsequent issues of Employment and Pay Rolls, or in February 1935 and subsequent issues of Monthly Labor Review, except for anthracite and bituminous-coal mining, year-round hotels, laundries, and dyeing and cleaning. Indexes for these industries from January 1929 forward have been adjusted to the 1935 census and are presented in the January 1938 and subsequent issues of Employment and Pay Rolls.³ Includes: Iron and steel, machinery, transportation equipment, nonferrous metals, lumber and allied products, and stone, clay, and glass products.⁴ Includes: Textiles and their products, leather and its manufactures, food and kindred products, tobacco manufactures, paper and printing, chemicals and allied products, products of petroleum and coal, rubber products, and a number of miscellaneous industries not included in other groups.

TREND OF INDUSTRIAL AND BUSINESS EMPLOYMENT, BY STATES

A comparison of employment and pay rolls, by States and geographic divisions, in September and October 1939 is shown in table 3 for all groups combined and for all manufacturing industries combined based on data supplied by reporting establishments. The percentage changes shown, unless otherwise noted, are unweighted—that is, the industries included in the manufacturing group and in the grand total have not been weighted according to their relative importance.

The totals for all manufacturing industries combined include figures for miscellaneous manufacturing industries in addition to the 90 manufacturing industries presented in table 1. The totals for all groups combined include all manufacturing industries, each of the nonmanufacturing industries presented in table 1 (except building construction) and seasonal hotels.

Similar comparisons showing only percentage changes are available in mimeographed form for all groups combined, all manufacturing, anthracite mining, bituminous-coal mining, metalliferous mining, quarrying and nonmetallic mining, crude-petroleum producing, public utilities, wholesale trade, retail trade, hotels, laundries, dyeing and cleaning, and brokerage and insurance.

TABLE 3.—*Comparison of Employment and Pay Rolls in Identical Establishments in October 1939, by Geographic Divisions and by States*

[Figures in Italics are not compiled by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, but are taken from reports issued by cooperating State organizations]

Geographic division and State	Total—all groups					Manufacturing				
	Number of establishments	Number on pay roll, October 1939	Percentage change from September 1939	Amount of pay roll (1 week), October 1939	Percentage change from September 1939	Number of establishments	Number on pay roll, October 1939	Percentage change from September 1939	Amount of pay roll (1 week), October 1939	Percentage change from September 1939
				<i>Dollars</i>					<i>Dollars</i>	
New England.....	12,340	910,519	+4.1	21,418,629	+4.1	3,540	646,672	+5.4	14,759,111	+6.0
Maine.....	749	57,065	+1.0	1,170,629	+9.9	277	48,785	+1.3	982,713	+1.0
New Hampshire.....	546	37,776	+1.9	736,985	-2.2	205	33,535	+2.3	650,124	-2.2
Vermont.....	421	16,675	+2.8	386,244	+7.4	138	10,620	+4.3	247,091	+10.7
Massachusetts.....	17,712	492,943	+2.7	11,711,858	+2.5	1,798	292,794	+4.6	6,694,906	+4.4
Rhode Island.....	1,107	98,805	+8.1	2,012,387	+2.1	419	82,480	+9.9	1,622,253	+2.7
Connecticut.....	1,805	207,255	+6.9	5,400,526	+10.6	703	178,458	+6.8	4,662,024	+12.0
Middle Atlantic.....	30,951	2,179,712	+4.7	59,906,048	+9.9	6,690	1,349,950	+5.6	36,974,990	+11.6
New York.....	19,249	930,031	+2.9	25,476,330	+5.0	2,726	479,183	+3.6	13,311,529	+6.0
New Jersey.....	3,596	371,357	+4.3	10,059,705	+8.7	1,608	318,465	+5.2	8,672,969	+10.2
Pennsylvania.....	8,106	878,324	+6.8	24,370,013	+16.0	2,356	552,302	+7.5	14,990,492	+18.0
East North Central.....	23,718	2,228,708	+3.4	64,557,048	+8.5	8,326	1,699,616	+4.0	50,786,817	+9.4
Ohio.....	6,419	555,030	+4.4	16,143,198	+11.9	2,375	438,116	+5.1	13,135,011	+13.8
Indiana.....	2,828	282,153	+3.7	7,852,185	+11.8	1,081	228,207	+1.6	6,601,061	+10.4
Illinois.....	6,752	640,645	+3.6	17,704,963	+7.3	2,387	489,191	+4.5	11,957,036	+8.6
Michigan.....	3,466	504,824	+3.9	16,290,839	+4.8	1,022	435,750	+4.6	14,507,273	+5.5
Wisconsin.....	4,253	246,076	-4.1	6,595,863	+9.6	1,461	168,352	-1.7	4,586,436	+6.7

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 3.—Comparison of Employment and Pay Rolls in Identical Establishments in October 1939, by Geographic Divisions and by States—Continued

[Figures in italics are not compiled by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, but are taken from reports issued by cooperating State organizations]

Geographic division and State	Total—all groups					Manufacturing				
	Number of establishments	Number on pay roll, October 1939	Percentage change from September 1939	Amount of pay roll (1 week), October 1939	Percentage change from September 1939	Number of establishments	Number on pay roll, October 1939	Percentage change from September 1939	Amount of pay roll (1 week), October 1939	Percentage change from September 1939
				<i>Dollars</i>					<i>Dollars</i>	
West North Central.....	11,101	434,823	+1.3	10,948,043	+4.7	2,447	222,356	+2.4	5,558,708	+6.1
Minnesota.....	<i>2,839</i>	<i>134,807</i>	-1.8	<i>3,738,851</i>	+4.2	<i>656</i>	<i>54,192</i>	-1.8	<i>1,471,926</i>	+5.0
Iowa.....	1,570	59,228	+8.8	1,476,838	+6.2	363	36,803	+6.6	946,476	+6.9
Missouri.....	2,500	146,982	+2.8	3,549,301	+5.9	783	91,706	+4.7	2,148,525	+8.6
North Dakota.....	374	3,571	-3.3	89,284	+1.9	27	418	-14.3	10,759	-16.1
South Dakota.....	383	5,660	+2.0	127,284	+1.8	30	2,747	+6.4	64,688	+1.5
Nebraska.....	1,006	27,540	+5.4	614,264	+4.3	136	10,681	+11.8	248,318	+6.1
Kansas.....	<i>2,429</i>	<i>67,035</i>	+2.3	<i>1,350,221</i>	+2.8	<i>452</i>	<i>26,809</i>	+19	<i>663,016</i>	+1.9
South Atlantic.....	9,084	873,531	+4.2	17,846,503	+7.6	2,933	633,967	+4.0	12,025,298	+7.7
Delaware.....	224	15,810	-2.2	393,750	+5.7	81	11,699	-1.3	281,235	+6.2
Maryland.....	1,668	149,413	+5.7	3,831,814	+6.7	642	108,368	+3.3	2,805,975	+8.0
District of Columbia.....	943	34,009	+3.0	907,227	+3.6	41	3,442	-4.4	119,776	-1.1
Virginia.....	1,580	118,252	+1.9	2,313,625	+3.8	454	86,746	+2.5	1,655,956	+4.2
West Virginia.....	959	131,755	+8.1	3,692,977	+15.9	199	53,522	+8.3	1,454,358	+18.6
North Carolina.....	1,370	176,630	+2.3	2,814,352	+4.3	673	162,413	+2.9	2,594,997	+4.9
South Carolina.....	661	93,720	+3.6	1,375,204	+5.0	282	88,277	+3.7	1,281,659	+5.2
Georgia.....	1,009	115,880	+5.4	1,832,775	+7.8	378	97,809	+6.2	1,459,919	+9.2
Florida.....	770	38,062	+10.0	684,779	+8.7	183	21,691	+3.4	371,423	+5.6
East South Central.....	3,460	288,923	+4.1	5,544,295	+8.5	1,036	201,013	+4.2	3,675,203	+8.3
Kentucky.....	1,071	78,523	+4.3	1,849,664	+9.0	281	34,752	+3.5	786,212	+7.9
Tennessee.....	997	99,774	+2.8	1,790,487	+6.3	364	79,536	+2.7	1,441,014	+6.9
Alabama.....	1,028	89,620	+5.2	1,599,605	+10.3	292	70,385	+5.4	1,222,163	+9.6
Mississippi.....	364	21,006	+5.8	304,539	+9.4	99	16,340	+7.8	225,814	+11.6
West South Central.....	5,035	217,303	+2.1	4,861,515	+3.4	1,267	113,639	+2.6	2,490,538	+5.0
Arkansas.....	<i>1,825</i>	<i>29,098</i>	+5.4	<i>473,858</i>	+4.2	<i>241</i>	<i>19,558</i>	+5.4	<i>314,417</i>	+5.1
Louisiana.....	787	51,009	+2.2	1,003,529	+4.3	221	31,046	+2.8	585,591	+5.2
Oklahoma.....	1,202	35,081	+1.5	889,343	+1.1	134	10,434	-1.1	273,178	+6.6
Texas.....	<i>2,221</i>	<i>102,116</i>	+1.8	<i>2,494,785</i>	+3.8	<i>671</i>	<i>52,601</i>	+2.7	<i>1,317,552</i>	+5.1
Mountain.....	3,468	125,009	+7.6	3,266,363	+13.2	553	47,014	+17.4	1,145,290	+21.0
Montana.....	497	16,390	+12.8	464,519	+20.4	77	6,129	+19.4	173,401	+31.6
Idaho.....	390	11,133	+10.2	291,459	+14.5	61	4,995	+25.2	131,075	+32.0
Wyoming.....	296	8,153	+5.6	250,042	+12.9	39	1,841	+28.7	55,631	+27.5
Colorado.....	1,057	42,391	+11.4	1,063,446	+13.8	193	20,419	+22.8	494,600	+21.3
New Mexico.....	246	5,177	+1.8	113,838	+10.4	28	833	+1.8	17,467	+8.5
Arizona.....	365	15,475	+2.5	445,359	+10.0	39	2,839	+6.6	72,712	+16.1
Utah.....	500	24,082	+3.3	568,260	+10.0	101	9,621	+8.5	188,863	+8.1
Nevada.....	117	2,208	+6.6	69,440	+8.4	15	337	-5.6	11,541	+8.2
Pacific.....	9,790	494,296	-2.7	14,514,732	+2.0	2,702	276,777	-3.9	7,948,828	+2.0
Washington.....	2,229	89,996	-1.6	2,507,348	+4.8	532	58,732	-2.7	1,656,648	+6.0
Oregon.....	889	43,733	-9.7	1,170,323	-2.4	289	30,158	-12.9	812,039	-4.2
California.....	<i>6,672</i>	<i>560,567</i>	-2.0	<i>10,837,061</i>	+1.9	<i>1,881</i>	<i>187,887</i>	-2.7	<i>5,480,141</i>	+1.9

¹ Includes banks and trust companies; construction, municipal, agricultural, and office employment; amusement and recreation; professional services; and trucking and handling.

² Includes laundering and cleaning; and water, light, and power.

³ Weighted percentage change.

⁴ Includes automobile and miscellaneous services, restaurants, and building and contracting.

⁵ Includes construction but not public works.

⁶ Does not include logging.

⁷ Includes banks; real estate; pipe-line transportation; motor transportation (other than operation and maintenance); water transportation; hospitals and clinics; and personal, business, mechanical repair, and miscellaneous services.

⁸ Includes financial institutions, miscellaneous services, and restaurants.

⁹ Weighted percentage change including hired farm labor.

¹⁰ Less than 1/10 of 1 percent.

¹¹ Includes automobile dealers and garages; and sand, gravel, and building stone.

¹² Includes banks, insurance, and office employment.

INDUSTRIAL AND BUSINESS EMPLOYMENT IN PRINCIPAL METROPOLITAN AREAS

A comparison of employment and pay rolls in September and October 1939 is made in table 4 for 13 metropolitan areas, each of which had a population of 500,000 or over in 1930. Cities within these areas, but having a population of 100,000 or over, are not included. Footnotes to the table specify which cities are excluded. Data concerning them have been prepared in a supplementary tabulation which is available on request. The figures represent reports from cooperating establishments and cover both full- and part-time workers in the manufacturing and nonmanufacturing industries presented in table 1, with the exception of building construction, and include also miscellaneous industries.

Revisions made in the figures after they have gone to press, chiefly because of late reports by cooperating firms, are incorporated in the supplementary tabulation mentioned above. This supplementary tabulation covers these 13 metropolitan areas as well as other metropolitan areas and cities having a population of 100,000 or more, according to the 1930 Census of Population.

TABLE 4.—*Comparison of Employment and Pay Rolls in Identical Establishments in September and October 1939, by Principal Metropolitan Areas*

Metropolitan area	Number of establishments October 1939	Number on pay roll October 1939	Percentage change from September 1939	Amount of pay roll (1 week) October 1939	Percentage change from September 1939
New York ¹	13,912	634,210	+4.4	\$17,348,336	+6.3
Chicago ²	4,341	437,906	+4.6	12,364,321	+6.9
Philadelphia ³	2,215	219,159	+4.3	6,100,326	+6.3
Detroit.....	1,449	324,244	+3.0	10,989,786	+1.0
Los Angeles ⁴	2,774	156,149	+1.3	4,630,828	+3.8
Cleveland.....	1,510	121,135	+4.5	3,685,575	+12.8
St. Louis.....	1,295	114,053	+3.2	2,902,661	+7.2
Baltimore.....	1,132	114,457	+3.0	2,947,085	+6.3
Boston ⁵	2,573	181,523	+2.5	4,481,643	+1.9
Pittsburgh.....	1,147	192,244	+9.8	5,968,037	+22.6
San Francisco ⁶	1,547	81,887	+2.0	2,535,165	+5.1
Buffalo.....	762	72,177	+8.6	2,049,093	+12.8
Milwaukee.....	959	98,444	-1.5	2,796,597	+2.8

¹ Does not include Elizabeth, Jersey City, Newark, or Paterson, N. J., nor Yonkers, N. Y.

² Does not include Gary, Ind.

³ Does not include Camden, N. J.

⁴ Does not include Long Beach, Calif.

⁵ Does not include Cambridge, Lynn, or Somerville, Mass.

⁶ Does not include Oakland, Calif.

Building Operations

SUMMARY OF BUILDING CONSTRUCTION IN PRINCIPAL CITIES, NOVEMBER 1939 ¹

IN NOVEMBER the volume of new building construction for which permits were issued was 1.1 percent greater than in October. New residential construction was up 14.4 percent from October. Sizable gains were reported in cities having a population of 500,000 and over and in the group of cities having a population of 100,000 and under 500,000. Permit valuations for new nonresidential construction fell off 11.3 percent from October and additions, alterations, and repairs to existing structures declined 20.7 percent.

As compared with November a year ago permit valuations for new building construction showed a gain of 17.0 percent. The gain was due to increased activity in residential construction which rose 43.1 percent over the year period. All city size groups reported a greater volume of residential construction than in November 1938. New nonresidential construction and additions, alterations, and repairs to existing structures, however, declined 13.8 and 0.1 percent, respectively, over the year period.

Comparison of November 1939 with October 1939 and November 1938

A summary of building construction in 2,022 identical cities in November 1939, October 1939, and November 1938 is given in table 1.

TABLE 1.—Summary of Building Construction for Which Permits Were Issued
in 2,022 Identical Cities, November 1939

Class of construction	Number of buildings			Permit valuation		
	November 1939	Percentage change from—		November 1939	Percentage change from—	
		October 1939	Novem- ber 1938		October 1939	Novem- ber 1938
All construction.....	59,306	-18.4	+11.8	\$172,519,201	+1.1	+17.0
New residential.....	16,870	-10.2	+21.6	106,358,965	+14.4	+43.1
New nonresidential.....	11,660	-17.9	+12.1	43,164,951	-11.3	-13.8
Additions, alterations, and repairs.....	30,776	-22.4	+7.0	22,995,375	-20.7	-0.1

¹ More detailed information by geographic divisions and individual cities is given in a separate pamphlet entitled "Building Construction, November 1939," copies of which will be furnished upon request.

A summary of permit valuations of housekeeping dwellings and the number of families provided for in new dwellings in 2,022 identical cities, having a population of 1,000 and over, is shown in table 2 for November 1939 compared with October 1939 and November 1938.

TABLE 2.—*Permit Valuation of Housekeeping Dwellings and Number of Families Provided for in 2,022 Identical Cities, November 1939*

Type of dwelling	Permit valuation of housekeeping dwellings			Number of families provided for in new dwellings		
	November 1939	Percentage change from—		November 1939	Percentage change from—	
		October 1939	November 1938		October 1939	November 1938
All types.....	\$105,466,465	+17.4	+42.4	29,716	+23.8	+47.8
1-family.....	61,113,536	-12.4	+16.9	15,368	-13.0	+17.7
2-family ¹	2,858,196	-8.9	+21.3	1,136	-1.3	+20.6
Multifamily ²	41,494,733	+145.6	+113.3	13,212	+154.6	+116.1

¹ Includes 1- and 2-family dwellings with stores.

² Includes multifamily dwellings with stores.

Construction During First 11 Months, 1938 and 1939

Cumulative totals for the first 11 months of 1939 compared with the same months of the preceding year are shown in table 3. The data are based on reports received from cities having a population of 1,000 and over.

TABLE 3.—*Permit Valuation of Building Construction in Reporting Cities of 1,000 Population and Over, First 11 Months of 1938 and of 1939*

Class of construction	Permit valuation of building construction, first 11 months of—		Percentage change
	1939	1938	
All construction.....	\$1,922,635,362	\$1,582,884,156	+21.5
New residential.....	1,056,443,449	793,461,616	+33.1
New nonresidential.....	550,803,164	496,468,371	+10.9
Additions, alterations, and repairs.....	315,388,749	292,954,169	+7.7

Table 4 presents the permit valuation of housekeeping dwellings and number of family-dwelling units provided in cities with a population of 1,000 and over for the first 11 months of 1938 and 1939.

TABLE 4.—Permit Valuation of Housekeeping Dwellings and Number of Family-Dwelling Units, First 11 Months of 1938 and of 1939, by Type of Dwelling

Type of dwelling	Permit valuation of house-keeping dwellings, first 11 months of—		Percent- age change	Number of family-dwelling units, first 11 months of—		Percent- age change
	1939	1938		1939	1938	
All types.....	\$1,042,314,511	\$786,035,755	+32.6	286,154	215,953	+32.5
1-family.....	668,308,562	525,756,347	+27.1	108,870	132,562	+27.4
2-family ¹	32,337,267	30,532,994	+5.9	12,420	11,644	+6.7
Multifamily ²	341,668,682	229,746,414	+48.7	104,864	71,747	+46.2

¹ Includes 1- and 2-family dwellings with stores.² Includes multifamily dwellings with stores*Analysis by Size of City, November 1939*

Table 5 shows the value of permits issued for building construction in November 1939 compared with October 1939 and November 1938, by size of city and by class of construction.

TABLE 5.—Permit Valuation of Building Construction in 2,022 Identical Cities, by Size of City, November 1939

Size of city	Number of cities	Total construction			New residential buildings		
		Permit valuation, November 1939	Percentage change from—		Permit valuation, November 1939	Percentage change from—	
			October 1939	November 1938		October 1939	November 1938
Total, all reporting cities.....	2, 022	\$172, 519, 291	+1. 1	+17. 0	\$106, 358, 965	+14. 4	+43. 1
500,000 and over.....	14	58, 700, 425	+4. 1	+11. 5	36, 707, 784	+20. 8	+13. 7
100,000 and under 500,000.....	79	44, 054, 966	+18. 9	+73. 0	27, 412, 236	+71. 1	+122. 2
50,000 and under 100,000.....	93	14, 534, 984	-10. 5	-9. 2	8, 220, 862	-12. 4	+45. 9
25,000 and under 50,000.....	166	15, 437, 260	-15. 9	-5. 7	8, 355, 959	-23. 0	+32. 3
10,000 and under 25,000.....	427	23, 124, 857	+1. 4	+19. 0	13, 556, 042	+2. 9	+51. 4
5,000 and under 10,000.....	373	9, 358, 921	-16. 9	+11. 4	6, 622, 306	-10. 2	+48. 8
2,500 and under 5,000.....	423	4, 817, 990	-17. 8	-16. 8	3, 762, 326	-5. 9	+25. 4
1,000 and under 2,500.....	447	2, 489, 888	-9. 0	-25. 5	1, 721, 450	-5. 1	+28. 7
		New nonresidential buildings		Additions, alterations, and repairs		Population (census of 1930)	
		Permit valuation, November 1939	Percentage change from—		Permit valuation, November 1939		
			October 1939	November 1938		October 1939	November 1938
Total, all reporting cities.....	\$43, 164, 951	-11. 3	-13. 8	\$22, 905, 375	-20. 7	-0. 1	59, 851, 538
500,000 and over.....	14, 212, 992	-11. 3	+2. 1	7, 779, 649	-21. 9	+21. 4	21, 449, 853
100,000 and under 500,000.....	11, 324, 829	-14. 2	+42. 8	5, 317, 901	-32. 1	+2. 3	15, 017, 880
50,000 and under 100,000.....	3, 991, 591	+4. 0	-48. 2	2, 322, 531	-23. 1	-12. 8	6, 220, 802
25,000 and under 50,000.....	4, 391, 891	-4. 5	-34. 3	2, 689, 410	-7. 3	-20. 2	5, 789, 032
10,000 and under 25,000.....	6, 426, 563	-2. 8	-14. 6	3, 142, 252	+4. 4	+6. 2	6, 543, 306
5,000 and under 10,000.....	1, 734, 126	-31. 3	-37. 8	1, 002, 489	-26. 5	-13. 7	2, 622, 128
2,500 and under 5,000.....	584, 065	-51. 0	-73. 5	471, 599	-30. 1	-19. 3	1, 501, 416
1,000 and under 2,500.....	498, 894	-26. 4	-62. 5	269, 544	+9. 7	-60. 0	707, 121

The permit valuation of housekeeping dwellings in the 2,022 identical cities reporting for October and November 1939, together with the number of family-dwelling units provided in new dwellings, by size of city, is given in table 6.

TABLE 6.—*Permit Valuation of Housekeeping Dwellings and Number of Families Provided for in 2,022 Identical Cities, by Size of City, October and November 1939*

Size of city	Permit valuation of house- ing dwellings			Number of families provided for in—							
	November 1939	October 1939	Per- centage change	All types		1-family dwellings		2-family dwell- ings ¹		Multi- family dwell- ings ²	
				No- vem- ber 1939	Octo- ber 1939	No- vem- ber 1939	Octo- ber 1939	No- vem- ber 1939	Oc- to- ber 1939	No- vem- ber 1939	Oc- to- ber 1939
Total, all reporting cities.....	\$105,466,465	\$89,827,702	+17.4	29,716	23,999	15,368	17,658	1,136	1,151	13,212	5,190
500,000 and over.....	36,371,784	28,948,788	+25.6	10,177	7,224	3,289	4,097	236	268	6,652	2,859
100,000 and under 500,- 000.....	27,249,736	15,912,800	+71.2	8,005	4,347	3,281	3,654	318	379	4,406	314
50,000 and under 100,000	8,015,862	9,376,427	-14.5	2,235	2,604	1,500	1,728	152	143	583	733
25,000 and under 50,000	8,355,959	9,654,849	-13.5	2,396	2,781	1,834	1,872	170	145	392	764
10,000 and under 25,000	13,531,042	13,111,175	+3.2	3,684	3,529	2,671	3,126	141	111	872	292
5,000 and under 10,000	6,547,306	7,068,073	-7.4	1,758	1,927	1,450	1,666	71	59	237	202
2,500 and under 5,000	3,717,326	3,952,447	-5.9	985	1,048	892	985	30	37	63	26
1,000 and under 2,500	1,677,450	1,803,143	-7.0	476	539	451	530	18	9	7	0

¹ Includes 1- and 2-family dwellings with stores.

² Includes multifamily dwellings with stores.

The information on building permits issued is based on reports received by the Bureau of Labor Statistics from 2,022 identical cities having a population of 1,000 and over.

The information is collected by the Bureau of Labor Statistics from local building officials, except in the States of Illinois, Massachusetts, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania, where the State departments of labor collect and forward the information to the Bureau. In New York and North Carolina the information from the smaller cities is collected by the Bureau of Labor Statistics from local building officials and the information from the larger cities is collected and forwarded to the Bureau by the State departments of labor. The permit valuations shown in this report are estimates made by prospective builders on applying for permits to build. No land costs are included. Only building projects within the corporate limits of the cities enumerated are included in the Bureau's tabulation. The data collected by the Bureau of Labor Statistics show, in addition to private and municipal construction, the value of buildings for which contracts were awarded by the Federal and State Governments in the cities included in the report. For November 1939 the value of these buildings amounted to \$33,327,000, for October 1939 to \$12,908,000, and for November 1938 to \$17,105,000.

Construction From Public Funds

The value of contracts awarded and force-account work started during November 1939, October 1939, and November 1938 on construction projects financed wholly or partially from various Federal funds is shown in table 7.

TABLE 7.—Value of Contracts Awarded and Force-Account Work Started on Projects Financed from Federal Funds, October and November 1939 and November 1938 ¹

Federal agency	Contracts awarded and force-account work started—		
	November 1939	October 1939 ²	November 1938 ²
Total	\$102,917,018	\$157,941,490	\$226,862,611
Public Works Administration:			
Federal	311,649	745,173	21,017,404
Non-Federal:			
N. I. R. A.	763,738	62,350	² 690,451
E. R. A. A.	494,943	2,831,921	1,170,700
P. W. A. A., 1938	21,361,629	17,953,436	113,450,724
Federal Agency projects from WPA funds	354,034	1,631,870	2,120,604
Regular Federal appropriations	65,865,956	117,585,976	87,810,278
U. S. Housing Authority	13,765,069	17,130,764	602,450

¹ Preliminary, subject to revision.

² Revised.

³ Includes \$7,800 PWA low-cost housing.

The value of public-building and highway construction awards financed wholly from appropriations from State funds, as reported by the various State governments for November 1939, October 1939, and November 1938 is shown in the following statement:

	Public buildings	Highway construction
November 1939	\$1,037,971	\$8,508,890
October 1939	2,263,967	3,914,360
November 1938	3,651,020	4,456,701

Retail Prices

FOOD PRICES IN NOVEMBER 1939

THE average retail cost of food in the 51 cities included in the monthly index changed very little between October and November. A decrease of 0.6 percent was reported. Lower prices were shown for 23 food items, higher prices for 17, and for 21 there was no change. A number of marked increases and decreases offset each other resulting in the comparatively small change recorded for all items combined.

The November index was 77.9 of the 1923-25 average as compared with 78.4 for October and 77.8 for November of last year.

Details by Commodity Groups

The index for cereals and bakery products showed no change between October and November. The price of flour increased 0.5 percent and corn meal declined 2.2 percent. Prices of all other items in the group remained unchanged. Compared with a year ago, flour prices have advanced 7.5 percent, while white bread declined 3.1 percent. The recent advance in flour prices since August has not been reflected in the price of bread.

Meat costs declined 2.2 percent. Decreases averaged 1.7 percent for the beef and veal items, 5.5 percent for pork, 2.0 percent for lamb, and 2.4 percent for roasting chickens. Pink salmon rose 3.5 percent to the highest level shown since the Bureau began reporting retail prices for this item in January 1934.

Dairy products increased 0.8 percent. Butter showed a seasonal advance of 2.0 percent. The average price of butter was, however, 7.8 percent above the level of last November. Fresh milk remained unchanged. Moderate price increases were reported for cheese and evaporated milk.

Egg costs rose seasonally 4.3 percent, but were 10.7 percent lower than a year ago.

The cost of fruits and vegetables showed little change, the index decreasing 0.2 percent. The average price of apples was unchanged but was 18.6 percent less than last November. Orange prices dropped 17.0 percent from an average of 34.7 cents per dozen to 28.8 cents.

Potatoes increased 1.5 percent. Prices of green beans rose 28.6 percent, and carrots increased 5.8 percent. Other fresh vegetables declined, the decreases ranging from 1.0 percent for lettuce to 9.1 percent for cabbage.

The price of navy beans decreased 4.2 percent from 7.2 cents per pound to 6.9 cents.

Beverages showed no change.

The index for fats and oils declined 1.7 percent. The price of lard decreased from 11.5 cents per pound to 10.9 cents, a reduction of 5.2 percent. Prices of other items in the group were practically unchanged.

Sugar fell off 6.4 percent, with lower prices reported from all but one of the 51 cities. The average price of sugar for November was 5.8 cents per pound, as compared with 5.2 cents in August.

Indexes of retail food costs for November and October 1939 and November 1938, 1932, and 1929 are shown in table 1. The accompanying chart shows the trend in the cost of all foods and of each major commodity group for the period from January 1929 through November 1939.

Average prices of each of the 61 foods for 51 cities combined are shown in table 2 for November and October 1939 and November 1938.

TABLE 1.—*Indexes of Retail Food Costs in 51 Large Cities Combined, by Commodity Groups*

Nov. 14 and Oct. 17, 1939, and November 1938, 1932, and 1929

1923-25=100]

Commodity group	1939		Nov. 15, 1938	Nov. 15, 1932	Nov. 15, 1929
	Nov. 14 ¹	Oct. 17			
All foods.....	77.9	78.4	77.8	65.6	106.7
Cereals and bakery products.....	85.8	85.8	86.8	73.3	98.2
Meats.....	92.0	94.1	93.2	70.0	118.8
Dairy products.....	80.4	79.8	77.4	65.8	102.0
Eggs.....	77.9	74.7	87.2	78.4	129.5
Fruits and vegetables.....	57.7	57.8	55.9	50.4	103.9
Fresh.....	55.7	55.7	54.0	49.0	104.2
Canned.....	75.4	75.3	75.0	67.6	94.9
Dried.....	63.2	64.0	57.7	50.6	108.5
Beverages.....	65.5	65.5	66.4	73.8	108.9
Fats and oils.....	64.0	65.1	66.6	50.0	91.8
Sugar.....	70.5	75.3	62.5	58.8	76.2

¹ Preliminary.

RETAIL COST OF FOOD

1923-25=100

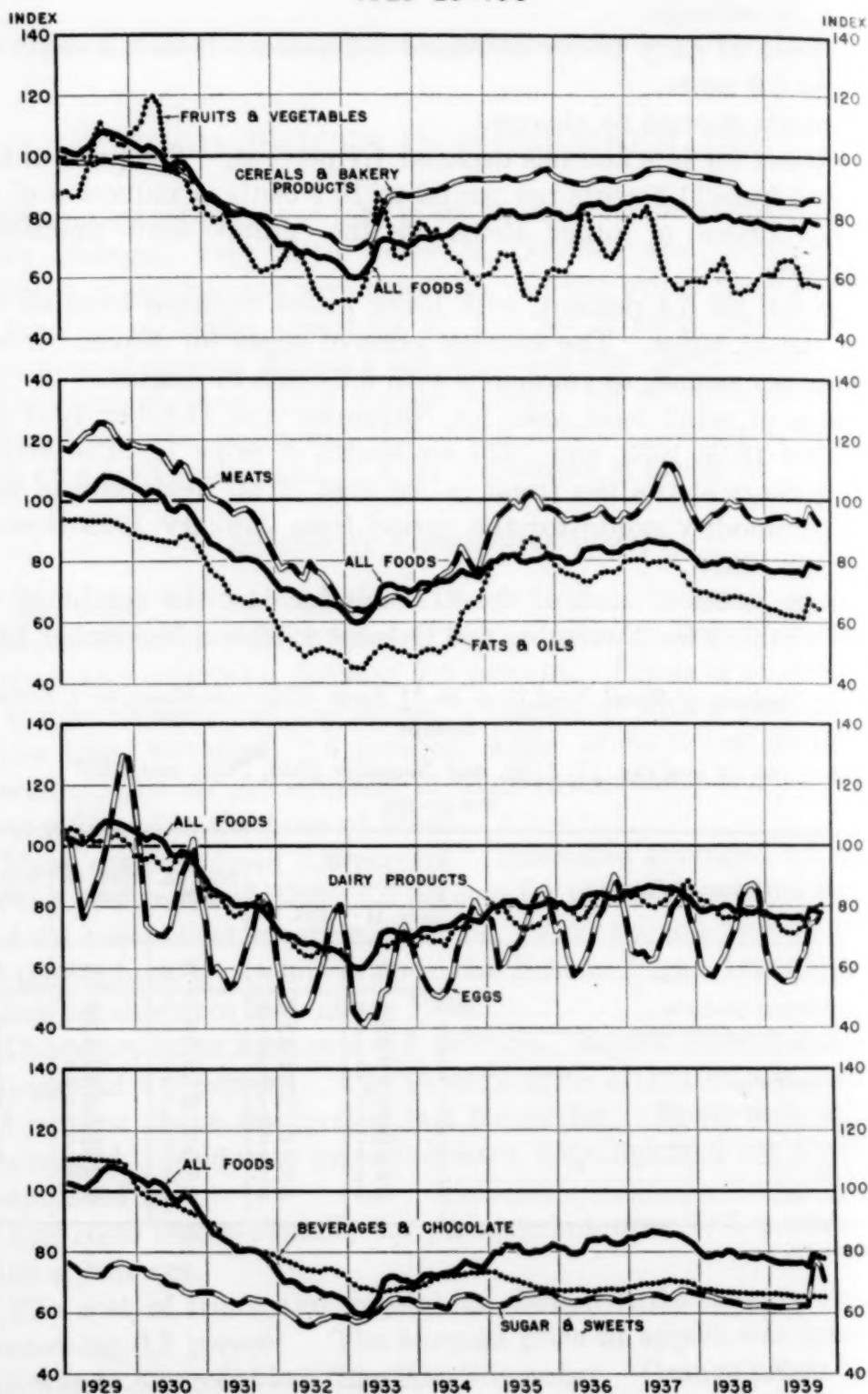


TABLE 2.—Average Retail Prices of 61 Foods in 51 Large Cities Combined, November and October 1939 and November 1938

Article	1939		Nov. 15, 1938
	Nov. 14 ¹	Oct. 17	
Cereals and bakery products:			
Cereals:	Cents	Cents	Cents
Flour, wheat.....10 pounds.....	42.4	42.2	36.8
Macaroni.....pound.....	14.4	14.4	14.6
Wheat cereal ²28-oz. package.....	23.8	23.8	24.4
Corn flakes.....8-oz. package.....	7.0	7.0	7.3
Corn meal.....pound.....	4.5	4.6	4.6
Rice ³do.....	8.1	8.1	7.6
Rollod oats ²do.....	7.1	7.1	7.2
Bakery products:			
Bread, white.....do.....	7.9	7.9	8.2
Brend, whole-wheat.....do.....	9.1	9.1	9.3
Bread, rye.....do.....	9.2	9.2	9.5
Soda crackers.....do.....	15.4	15.4	15.5
Meats:			
Beef:			
Round steak.....do.....	35.1	36.0	35.2
Rib roast.....do.....	29.1	29.3	29.7
Chuck roast.....do.....	23.2	23.5	23.3
Veal:			
Cutlets.....do.....	42.2	43.2	42.7
Pork:			
Chops.....do.....	28.3	31.7	31.5
Bacon, sliced.....do.....	30.4	31.0	35.9
Ham, sliced.....do.....	45.6	46.0	47.2
Ham, whole.....do.....	26.2	26.9	28.8
Salt pork.....do.....	16.8	16.7	20.0
Lamb:			
Leg.....do.....	26.5	27.0	27.3
Rib chops.....do.....	33.5	34.3	34.4
Poultry:			
Roasting chickens.....do.....	27.7	28.4	29.4
Fish:			
Salmon, pink.....16-oz. can.....	14.7	14.2	12.6
Salmon, red ²do.....	25.1	24.8	23.8
Dairy products:			
Butter.....pound.....	35.6	34.9	33.2
Cheese.....do.....	25.6	25.4	25.2
Milk, fresh (delivered and store) ²quart.....	12.5	12.5	12.2
Milk, fresh (delivered).....do.....	12.8	12.8	12.6
Milk, fresh (store).....do.....	11.8	11.8	11.5
Milk, evaporated.....14½-oz. can.....	7.0	6.9	6.9
Eggs.....dozen.....	39.6	37.9	44.5
Fruits and vegetables:			
Fresh:			
Apples.....pound.....	4.0	4.0	4.9
Bananas.....do.....	6.3	6.1	6.2
Oranges.....dozen.....	28.8	34.7	26.2
Beans, green.....pound.....	11.7	9.1	9.8
Cabbage.....do.....	3.0	3.3	2.5
Carrots.....bunch.....	5.5	5.2	5.5
Lettuce.....head.....	9.9	10.0	8.1
Onions.....pound.....	3.1	3.2	3.7
Potatoes.....15 pounds.....	34.9	34.4	29.0
Spinach.....pound.....	5.9	6.2	6.1
Sweetpotatoes.....do.....	3.2	3.3	3.4
Canned:			
Peaches.....No. 2½ can.....	16.9	16.9	17.2
Pineapple.....do.....	21.2	21.2	21.5
Beans, green ²No. 2 can.....	10.0	9.9	10.6
Corn ²do.....	10.5	10.5	11.0
Peas.....do.....	13.9	13.8	14.3
Tomatoes.....do.....	8.6	8.6	8.6
Dried:			
Prunes.....pound.....	9.3	9.2	9.1
Navy beans.....do.....	6.9	7.2	6.1
Beverages and chocolate:			
Coffee.....do.....	22.2	22.2	22.9
Tea.....¾ pound.....	17.5	17.4	17.8
Cocoa ²8-oz. can.....	8.9	8.9	8.6
Fats and oils:			
Lard.....pound.....	10.9	11.5	12.4
Shortening, other than lard:			
In cartons.....do.....	12.3	12.4	13.3
In other containers.....do.....	19.9	19.9	20.5
Mayonnaise.....½ pint.....	16.6	16.7	17.3
Oleomargarine.....pound.....	16.5	16.4	16.9
Peanut butter.....do.....	17.9	17.9	18.4

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 2.—Average Retail Prices of 61 Foods in 51 Large Cities Combined, November and October 1939 and November 1938—Continued

Article	1939		Nov. 15, 1938
	Nov. 14	Oct. 17	
Sugar and sweets:	<i>Cents</i>	<i>Cents</i>	<i>Cents</i>
Sugar.....10 pounds.....	58.2	62.2	51.6
Corn sirup ¹24-oz. can.....	13.5	13.5	13.9
Molasses ²18-oz. can.....	13.4	13.4	13.6

¹ Preliminary.² Not included in index.³ Since April 1939 prices of canned corn have been based upon quotations of cream style only and are not strictly comparable with prices for earlier months, which included both cream style and whole-kernel corn.

DETAILS BY REGIONS AND CITIES

The average decrease of 0.6 percent between October and November was due to lower costs in 35 cities and higher costs in 12 cities, while in 4 cities there was no change.

The cities showing the greatest decline during the month were Mobile, 2.5 percent; and Birmingham, 2.2 percent. In these cities decreases for fruits and vegetables and fats and oils were considerably more than the average for all cities combined. In St. Paul food costs rose 1.9 percent and advances were reported for every commodity group except beverages and sugar. Advances in other cities amounted to less than 1 percent.

TABLE 3.—Indexes of the Average Retail Cost of All Foods, by Cities, November and October 1939 and November 1938

[1923-25=100]

Region and city	1939		Nov. 15, 1938	Region and city	1939		Nov. 15, 1938
	Nov. 14 ¹	Oct. 17			Nov. 14 ¹	Oct. 17	
United States.....	77.9	78.4	77.8	South Atlantic:			
New England:				Atlanta.....	71.9	72.8	71.9
Boston.....	74.2	74.0	74.6	Baltimore.....	81.8	83.1	82.6
Bridgeport.....	80.4	80.3	80.4	Charleston, S. C.....	79.0	79.8	78.6
Fall River.....	78.4	79.0	78.8	Jacksonville.....	77.4	78.1	75.4
Manchester.....	79.1	79.5	79.2	Norfolk.....	75.5	76.0	74.7
New Haven.....	79.3	79.6	79.7	Richmond.....	70.0	69.5	72.0
Portland, Maine.....	76.7	76.7	75.9	Savannah.....	78.6	79.1	77.2
Providence.....	75.2	75.5	75.0	Washington, D. C.....	79.0	80.3	79.4
Middle Atlantic:				East South Central:			
Buffalo.....	76.7	76.7	77.4	Birmingham.....	66.3	67.8	67.1
Newark.....	81.6	81.7	81.2	Louisville.....	81.7	82.1	80.0
New York.....	82.2	82.2	81.2	Memphis.....	74.5	74.7	73.5
Philadelphia.....	78.1	79.5	77.7	Mobile.....	74.7	76.6	73.6
Pittsburgh.....	74.3	74.8	77.5	West South Central:			
Rochester.....	76.3	76.6	76.7	Dallas.....	73.6	73.7	73.1
Scranton.....	75.3	75.0	72.3	Houston.....	78.0	78.8	77.4
East North Central:				Little Rock.....	72.9	73.9	72.8
Chicago.....	79.4	79.7	78.3	New Orleans.....	84.4	85.9	82.5
Cincinnati.....	77.5	77.5	78.7	Mountain:			
Cleveland.....	78.4	78.6	77.6	Butte.....	75.6	75.9	75.1
Columbus, Ohio.....	76.2	75.6	75.1	Denver.....	80.6	80.4	81.4
Detroit.....	74.7	75.3	76.3	Salt Lake City.....	76.8	76.4	75.8
Indianapolis.....	77.3	77.9	77.3	Pacific:			
Milwaukee.....	79.4	80.6	79.9	Los Angeles.....	71.6	72.6	71.6
Peoria.....	79.2	78.7	78.6	Portland, Oreg.....	79.1	79.6	78.9
Springfield, Ill.....	76.7	76.4	76.8	San Francisco.....	81.9	82.6	81.4
West North Central:				Seattle.....	79.7	79.2	77.8
Kansas City.....	78.7	80.4	80.6				
Minneapolis.....	84.5	84.0	82.7				
Omaha.....	77.1	77.7	74.3				
St. Louis.....	83.2	83.7	82.2				
St. Paul.....	80.3	78.8	78.8				

¹ Preliminary.² Revised.

Weekly Changes in Retail Prices of 15 Staple Foods in November 1939

Since the outbreak of the war in Europe, the Bureau of Labor Statistics has reported weekly changes in the retail prices of 15 staple foods from 13 representative cities. Prices relative to August 15, 1939, the month immediately preceding the war, have been computed. These relative prices for the 13 cities combined are shown in table 4 for each week in November. The weekly average prices of each of the 15 foods are shown in table 5 by cities.

TABLE 4.—Relative Retail Prices of 15 Foods for 13 Cities Combined for Weekly Periods in November 1939

[Aug. 15, 1939=100]

Foods	Nov. 8	Nov. 14	Nov. 21	Nov. 28
15-food average.....	107.5	106.9	106.5	105.9
Flour.....	118.2	118.2	118.1	118.3
Bread.....	101.8	101.1	101.7	101.7
Round steak.....	95.6	96.0	95.3	95.2
Chuck roast.....	102.4	103.7	102.8	102.2
Pork chops.....	95.3	93.9	90.1	88.2
Sliced bacon.....	100.9	99.6	100.1	99.3
Pink salmon.....	111.7	112.9	113.4	113.1
Butter.....	114.5	114.7	116.1	117.0
Milk (store).....	104.1	104.3	105.1	105.1
Eggs.....	122.5	122.8	122.6	120.9
Canned tomatoes.....	101.8	100.1	99.7	99.7
Navy beans.....	124.1	120.7	120.5	120.0
Coffee.....	98.2	98.1	98.1	98.1
Lard.....	113.2	111.0	110.2	107.9
Sugar.....	113.5	112.5	110.7	109.5

TABLE 5.—Average Retail Price, in Cents, of 15 Foods in Each of 13 Cities, for Weekly Periods in November 1939

Foods	Boston	Buffalo	New York	Pittsburgh	Chicago	Cleveland	Detroit	St. Louis	Savannah	Washington, D. C.	Houston	Denver	Los Angeles
Flour (pound):													
Nov. 8.....	3.9	3.6	4.8	4.5	3.9	4.4	4.2	4.9	4.4	4.1	3.8	4.0	4.0
Nov. 14.....	3.9	3.6	4.8	4.5	3.9	4.4	4.2	5.0	4.4	4.1	3.8	3.9	4.0
Nov. 21.....	3.8	3.6	4.8	4.4	3.9	4.4	4.2	4.9	4.4	4.1	3.8	4.1	4.0
Nov. 28.....	3.8	3.6	4.8	4.4	3.9	4.4	4.2	5.0	4.4	4.1	3.8	4.1	4.0
Bread (pound):													
Nov. 8.....	7.5	7.7	8.8	7.9	6.6	9.2	7.6	7.5	9.1	8.8	7.2	6.9	6.6
Nov. 14.....	7.5	7.7	8.8	7.9	6.6	9.2	7.6	7.5	8.9	8.8	7.2	6.4	6.6
Nov. 21.....	7.5	7.7	8.8	7.9	6.6	9.2	7.6	7.5	8.9	8.8	7.2	6.9	6.6
Nov. 28.....	7.5	7.7	8.8	7.9	6.6	9.2	7.6	7.5	8.9	8.8	7.2	6.9	6.6
Round steak (pound):													
Nov. 8.....	38.1	34.3	38.0	33.4	36.1	33.5	34.1	35.0	32.9	32.0	30.6	31.5	35.8
Nov. 14.....	37.8	33.9	37.1	33.7	36.0	33.4	34.5	37.4	33.2	32.6	30.4	31.0	35.6
Nov. 21.....	37.8	34.1	38.1	33.4	35.8	33.0	33.8	35.2	33.4	32.3	30.4	31.0	35.5
Nov. 28.....	37.8	33.7	38.2	33.1	35.7	33.0	33.8	35.6	32.8	32.7	30.4	30.7	35.5
Chuck roast (pound):													
Nov. 8.....	23.3	23.2	24.0	22.9	25.5	23.2	25.6	21.1	20.3	19.9	18.8	22.7	22.2
Nov. 14.....	23.0	23.1	24.0	22.6	25.7	23.4	25.6	22.3	20.3	21.0	19.2	22.7	22.2
Nov. 21.....	23.0	23.1	24.8	22.9	25.7	23.1	25.6	21.9	20.3	20.4	18.9	21.5	22.0
Nov. 28.....	23.0	23.1	24.0	22.4	25.6	23.1	25.6	22.0	19.7	20.9	18.9	21.4	22.0

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 5.—Average Retail Price, in Cents, of 15 Foods in Each of 13 Cities, for Weekly Periods in November 1939—Continued

Foods	Boston	Buffalo	New York	Pittsburgh	Chicago	Cleveland	Detroit	St. Louis	Savannah	Washington, D. C.	Houston	Denver	Los Angeles
Pork chops (pound):													
Nov. 8.....	27.2	31.0	31.7	27.4	29.6	30.2	36.4	25.6	27.3	29.2	29.4	28.2	35.4
Nov. 14.....	27.0	28.9	29.7	27.2	28.9	29.3	36.2	27.2	27.0	27.9	29.1	27.9	35.8
Nov. 21.....	25.5	28.1	30.7	26.4	26.9	26.4	35.4	24.8	26.7	25.8	29.0	26.1	35.9
Nov. 28.....	25.1	27.3	30.1	25.8	27.1	25.8	34.9	23.6	25.9	25.4	28.5	25.2	35.6
Sliced bacon (pound):													
Nov. 8.....	28.6	27.9	31.5	29.0	34.1	28.6	30.6	28.0	31.6	30.1	28.1	34.5	33.6
Nov. 14.....	29.0	26.4	31.0	28.6	34.1	28.5	30.6	28.3	31.0	30.0	28.1	31.8	34.1
Nov. 21.....	29.1	27.5	31.0	28.7	34.4	28.4	30.1	28.0	31.6	29.4	27.8	33.3	34.0
Nov. 28.....	28.8	27.3	30.8	28.7	34.1	28.2	30.1	26.9	31.3	29.4	28.1	33.3	33.2
Pink salmon (16-oz. can):													
Nov. 8.....	14.0	14.3	15.1	14.5	15.6	14.7	14.5	15.6	14.7	12.8	14.2	14.5	13.1
Nov. 14.....	14.0	14.6	15.2	14.4	15.8	14.9	14.5	16.0	14.8	13.1	14.1	14.8	13.2
Nov. 21.....	14.3	14.7	15.7	14.4	15.8	14.8	14.5	15.7	14.8	13.6	14.1	14.6	13.2
Nov. 28.....	14.3	14.9	15.7	14.4	15.3	14.8	14.5	15.4	14.8	13.6	14.1	14.6	13.2
Butter (pound):													
Nov. 8.....	35.2	33.5	36.9	35.7	34.2	32.9	35.6	35.2	33.8	35.9	34.7	35.9	38.6
Nov. 14.....	35.5	33.6	36.9	35.7	34.1	32.8	35.6	35.4	33.8	36.7	35.0	35.7	38.5
Nov. 21.....	36.0	34.1	38.0	35.8	34.6	33.6	35.6	35.2	34.6	37.1	35.2	36.4	38.5
Nov. 28.....	36.2	34.7	38.0	36.0	34.8	34.0	36.3	36.3	34.5	37.7	34.9	36.4	38.5
Milk (store, quart):													
Nov. 8.....	12.2	12.0	13.2	12.0	10.7	10.1	9.6	11.6	15.0	13.9	11.4	10.2	9.0
Nov. 14.....	12.2	12.0	13.2	12.0	10.7	10.1	9.6	11.6	15.0	13.9	11.9	10.2	8.8
Nov. 21.....	12.2	12.0	13.2	12.0	10.7	11.1	9.6	11.6	15.0	13.9	11.9	10.2	8.8
Nov. 28.....	12.2	12.0	13.2	12.0	10.7	11.1	9.6	11.6	15.0	13.9	11.9	10.2	8.8
Eggs (dozen):													
Nov. 8.....	46.8	38.7	47.6	36.6	34.8	39.2	35.1	34.9	35.3	46.1	30.1	33.0	36.9
Nov. 14.....	47.6	38.8	47.0	37.4	35.0	39.5	35.8	33.9	34.4	46.0	30.1	32.9	38.1
Nov. 21.....	46.1	38.9	46.2	37.6	34.9	39.4	36.0	33.7	33.7	46.8	31.9	32.9	36.6
Nov. 28.....	42.9	38.8	45.6	37.6	34.2	39.3	35.9	33.6	32.9	46.8	34.3	32.4	33.4
Canned tomatoes (No. 2 can):													
Nov. 8.....	9.1	8.2	10.2	8.4	8.1	8.1	7.7	9.8	7.1	7.1	7.3	9.8	12.2
Nov. 14.....	9.0	8.2	10.2	8.5	8.1	8.1	7.7	8.9	7.3	6.9	7.1	9.5	11.5
Nov. 21.....	9.0	8.2	10.2	8.5	8.1	8.1	7.7	8.4	7.3	6.7	7.1	9.8	11.5
Nov. 28.....	9.0	8.2	10.2	8.5	8.1	8.1	7.7	8.1	7.3	7.1	7.1	9.8	11.5
Navy beans (pound):													
Nov. 8.....	7.6	7.1	9.5	6.2	6.5	5.5	6.1	6.9	7.2	6.9	7.2	6.8	8.6
Nov. 14.....	7.5	7.0	9.4	5.8	6.2	5.4	6.1	6.3	7.4	6.5	7.2	6.6	8.5
Nov. 21.....	7.5	6.9	9.4	5.9	6.2	5.5	6.3	6.5	7.3	6.5	7.2	6.1	8.5
Nov. 28.....	7.2	6.8	9.4	5.9	6.2	5.5	6.3	6.6	7.3	6.5	7.2	6.0	8.5
Coffee (pound):													
Nov. 8.....	22.7	18.9	23.1	20.2	22.4	19.3	22.7	21.8	22.5	22.0	20.2	27.6	21.5
Nov. 14.....	22.7	18.9	23.1	20.1	22.3	19.3	22.7	21.8	22.5	21.9	20.2	27.6	21.5
Nov. 21.....	22.7	18.9	23.1	20.3	22.3	19.3	22.5	21.8	22.5	21.8	20.2	27.6	21.5
Nov. 28.....	22.7	18.9	23.1	20.3	22.3	19.3	22.5	21.8	22.5	21.8	20.2	27.4	21.5
Lard (pound):													
Nov. 8.....	11.1	10.1	12.8	10.2	10.4	12.3	11.7	10.1	11.9	9.9	11.1	11.9	12.0
Nov. 14.....	10.7	10.0	12.5	9.9	10.4	11.9	11.7	9.9	11.2	9.8	11.1	11.2	12.2
Nov. 21.....	10.6	10.0	12.5	9.9	10.4	11.8	11.6	9.7	11.1	9.7	11.0	11.2	11.9
Nov. 28.....	10.4	9.6	12.2	9.8	10.1	11.8	11.6	9.7	11.1	9.7	10.0	10.7	11.8
Sugar (pound):													
Nov. 8.....	5.8	5.8	5.7	5.6	5.8	6.2	6.3	6.0	5.9	5.8	5.7	6.7	5.6
Nov. 14.....	5.8	5.7	5.6	5.7	5.8	6.1	6.2	6.0	5.7	5.7	5.7	6.6	5.6
Nov. 21.....	5.7	5.7	5.5	5.4	5.7	5.9	6.2	5.9	5.7	5.6	5.7	6.5	5.5
Nov. 28.....	5.6	5.6	5.5	5.3	5.7	5.8	6.1	5.8	5.7	5.6	5.7	6.3	5.5

¹ No. 2½ can.

NOTE.—Prices for Nov. 14 and 21 are revised to include data from the more complete sample obtained in the regular monthly price survey.

Wholesale Prices

WHOLESALE PRICES IN NOVEMBER 1939 ¹

SHARP decreases in prices of livestock and meats caused the Bureau of Labor Statistics index of wholesale commodity prices to drop 0.3 percent during November to 79.2 percent of the 1926 average. The all-commodity index was 2.2 percent above the corresponding month of last year and over 5 percent above the 1939 low point (75.0) reached in August.

Four of the 10 major group classifications declined during the month. These were foods, 1.4 percent; miscellaneous commodities, 0.8 percent; hides and leather products, 0.6 percent; and chemicals and drugs, 0.1 percent. Six groups advanced. Textile products rose 1.2 percent; housefurnishing goods, 0.7 percent; farm products and fuel and lighting materials, 0.3 percent; and metals and metal products and building materials, 0.2 percent. Each group except foods and farm products, is above its year ago level. The increases range from less than 1 percent for fuel and lighting materials to over 15 percent for textile products. Wholesale food prices are 2.4 percent below a year ago and farm product prices are 0.7 percent lower.

Higher prices for agricultural commodities, particularly grains, cotton, eggs, fruits, and vegetables, together with sharp advances in prices of import commodities, caused the index for the raw materials group to advance fractionally. Following the pronounced increase in prices of semimanufactured commodities during September and October, the index dropped 1.2 percent in November. Average wholesale prices of finished products were fractionally lower as were also nonagricultural commodity prices. Industrial commodity prices, as measured by the index for "all commodities other than farm products and foods" advanced 0.2 percent during November.

As a result of increases of 4.1 percent for grains and 3.3 percent for "other farm products," the farm products group index rose 0.3 percent to 67.3 percent of the 1926 average. Pronounced advances were reported in prices of wheat, corn, oats, ewes, cotton, eggs, apples, lemons, oranges, and potatoes. The livestock and poultry subgroup declined 6.2 percent because of sharp decreases in prices of hogs, calves, steers, cows, and lambs. Quotations were lower also for barley, rye, hops, peanuts, tobacco, beans, and wool.

¹ More detailed information on wholesale prices is given in the Wholesale Price pamphlet and will be furnished upon request.

Largely because of a 4.9 percent decline in wholesale prices of meats, the foods group index fell 1.4 percent. Quotations were lower for cheese (New York), corn meal, rice, dried fruits, canned vegetables, fresh beef, bacon, ham, mess pork, fresh pork, veal, coffee, copra, glucose, oleo oil, pepper, sugar, tallow, and vegetable oils. The fruits and vegetables subgroup advanced 1.7 percent during the month, and dairy products rose 1.5 percent. Prices were higher for butter, powdered milk, oatmeal, wheat flour, canned fruits, lamb, dressed poultry, cocoa beans, and oleomargarine. The current food index, 72.3, is 2.4 percent below November a year ago.

In the hides and leather products group, advancing prices for shoes and other leather manufactures were more than offset by sharp declines in prices of hides and skins, with the result that the group index registered a decline for the first time since April. Minor price fluctuations were recorded in the leather market.

Continuing the upward movement in textile products prices which began early in the year, the textile products group index advanced 1.2 percent to the highest level reached in over 2 years. Higher prices for silk, burlap, raw jute, cordage, clothing, and cotton goods contributed to the increase. The woolen and worsted subgroup declined nearly 1 percent.

The index for the fuel and lighting materials group rose fractionally because of higher prices for anthracite, coke, and Pennsylvania crude petroleum. Prices for bituminous coal, Pennsylvania fuel oil, and gasoline averaged lower. From October to November the petroleum products subgroup index declined 0.2 percent.

The metals and metal products and building materials groups advanced 0.2 percent during November. Higher prices for motor vehicles, electrolytic copper, and copper and brass manufactures largely accounted for the advance in the metals and metal products group index. Prices for scrap steel, quicksilver, bar silver, solder, and pig tin were lower. In the building materials group, higher prices for brick, lumber, and millwork were responsible for the advance.

Weakening prices for fats, oils, and camphor accounted for the decline of 0.1 percent in the chemicals and drugs group index. Quotations were higher for calcium acetate, naphthaline flakes, quebracho extract, castor oil, quinine, soda phosphate, and most fertilizer materials.

Higher prices for bedding, flooring, and furniture caused the index for the housefurnishing goods group to rise 0.7 percent to the highest point reached since December 1937.

In the miscellaneous group of commodities, cattle feed prices advanced 10.4 percent and paper and pulp, cylinder oils, and paraffin wax also averaged higher. Average wholesale prices of crude rubber and automobile tires and tubes were lower.

Index numbers for the groups and subgroups of commodities for October and November 1939 and November 1938 and the percentage changes from October 1939 and November 1938 to November 1939 are shown in table 1.

TABLE 1.—*Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices by Groups and Subgroups of Commodities, October and November 1939 and November 1938, and Percentage Changes, October 1939 and November 1938 to November 1939*

Group and subgroup	November 1939	October 1939	Change from a month ago	November 1938	Change from a year ago
			Percent		Percent
All commodities	79.2	79.4	-0.3	77.5	+2.2
Farm products	67.3	67.1	+0.3	67.8	-.7
Grains	64.1	61.6	+4.1	50.9	+25.9
Livestock and poultry	66.1	70.5	-6.2	75.2	-12.1
Other farm products	68.3	66.1	+3.3	67.4	+1.3
Foods	72.3	73.3	-1.4	74.1	-2.4
Dairy products	80.1	78.9	+1.5	72.5	+10.5
Cereal products	78.0	78.0	0	74.0	+5.4
Fruits and vegetables	61.2	60.2	+1.7	63.0	-2.9
Meats	71.2	74.9	-4.9	81.9	-13.1
Other foods	69.2	70.2	-1.4	71.0	-2.5
Hides and leather products	104.0	104.6	-.6	94.6	+9.9
Shoes	107.2	105.7	+1.4	100.4	+6.8
Hides and skins	104.3	112.4	-7.2	85.5	+22.0
Leather	97.8	97.8	0	86.9	+12.5
Other leather products	99.9	99.3	+.6	96.6	+3.4
Textile products	76.4	75.5	+1.2	66.2	+15.4
Clothing	83.8	83.2	+.7	81.6	+2.7
Cotton goods	74.8	74.3	+.7	65.1	+14.9
Hosiery and underwear	64.8	63.5	+2.0	59.9	+8.2
Silk and rayon	47.7	46.2	+3.2	30.3	+57.4
Woolen and worsted goods	90.5	91.3	-.9	76.4	+18.5
Other textile products	83.4	78.3	+6.5	64.5	+29.3
Fuel and lighting materials	74.1	73.9	+.3	73.7	+.5
Anthracite	76.1	75.3	+1.1	80.1	-5.0
Bituminous coal	98.1	98.2	-.1	98.5	-.4
Coke	111.2	108.0	+3.0	104.2	+6.7
Electricity	(1)	75.4	-2.7	² 81.8	
Gas	(1)	84.4	-3.2	² 84.6	
Petroleum products	53.9	54.0	-.2	51.5	+4.7
Metals and metal products	96.0	95.8	+.2	94.9	+1.2
Agricultural implements	93.3	93.4	-.1	93.7	-.4
Farm machinery	94.6	94.6	0	95.0	-.4
Iron and steel	96.0	96.0	0	96.9	-.9
Motor vehicles	94.7	93.9	+.9	93.6	+1.2
Nonferrous metals	85.1	85.3	-.2	77.6	+9.7
Plumbing and heating	79.3	79.3	0	78.7	+.8
Building materials	93.0	92.8	+.2	89.2	+4.3
Brick and tile	91.6	91.5	+.1	91.5	+.1
Cement	91.3	91.3	0	90.6	+.8
Lumber	98.3	98.0	+.3	90.2	+9.0
Paint and paint materials	84.9	85.7	-.9	80.9	+4.9
Plumbing and heating	79.3	79.3	0	78.7	+.8
Structural steel	107.3	107.3	0	107.3	0
Other building materials	92.9	91.9	+1.1	89.7	+3.6
Chemicals and drugs	78.0	78.1	-.1	76.6	+1.8
Chemicals	81.4	82.1	-.9	80.2	+1.5
Drugs and pharmaceuticals	75.0	74.4	+.8	73.6	+1.9
Fertilizer materials	73.0	70.6	+3.4	67.7	+7.8
Mixed fertilizers	72.6	72.6	0	73.2	-.8
Housefurnishing goods	88.4	87.8	+.7	85.8	+3.0
Furnishings	94.2	93.7	+.5	89.7	+5.0
Furniture	82.3	81.7	+.7	81.9	+.5
Miscellaneous	77.0	77.6	-.8	73.0	+5.5
Automobile tires and tubes	55.6	60.5	-8.1	58.8	-5.4
Cattle feed	91.5	82.9	+10.4	70.5	+29.8
Paper and pulp	88.0	86.3	+2.0	81.5	+8.0
Rubber, crude	42.5	42.7	-.5	34.3	+23.9
Other miscellaneous	86.0	85.4	+.7	81.2	+5.9
Raw materials	72.4	72.3	+.1	71.5	+1.3
Semimanufactured articles	82.1	83.1	-1.2	76.2	+7.7
Finished products	82.0	82.3	-.4	80.5	+1.9
All commodities other than farm products	81.6	82.0	-.5	79.5	+2.6
All commodities other than farm products and foods	84.0	83.8	+.2	80.6	+4.2

¹ Data not yet available.

² October.

Index Numbers by Commodity Groups, 1926 to November 1939

Index numbers of wholesale prices by commodity groups for selected years from 1926 to 1938, inclusive, and by months from November 1938 to November 1939, inclusive, are shown in table 2.

TABLE 2.—*Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices, by Groups of Commodities*

[1926=100]

Year and month	Farm products	Foods	Hides and leather products	Textile products	Fuel and lighting	Metals and metal products	Building materials	Chemicals and drugs	House furnishing goods	Miscellaneous	All commodities
By years:											
1926.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
1929.....	104.9	99.9	109.1	90.4	83.0	100.5	95.4	94.2	94.3	82.6	95.3
1932.....	48.2	61.0	72.9	54.9	70.3	80.2	71.4	73.5	75.1	64.4	64.8
1933.....	51.4	60.5	80.9	64.8	66.3	79.8	77.0	72.6	75.8	62.5	65.9
1936.....	80.9	82.1	95.4	71.5	76.2	87.0	86.7	80.4	81.7	70.5	80.8
1937.....	86.4	85.5	104.6	76.3	77.6	95.7	95.2	83.9	89.7	77.8	86.3
1938.....	68.5	73.6	92.8	66.7	76.5	95.7	90.3	77.6	86.8	73.3	78.6
By months:											
1938:											
November.....	67.8	74.1	94.6	66.2	73.7	94.9	89.2	76.6	85.8	73.0	77.5
December.....	67.6	93.1	93.1	65.8	73.2	94.6	89.4	76.7	86.0	73.1	77.0
1939:											
January.....	67.2	71.5	93.1	65.9	72.8	94.4	89.5	76.7	85.4	73.2	76.9
February.....	67.2	71.5	91.9	66.1	73.0	94.3	89.6	76.3	85.2	73.5	76.9
March.....	65.8	70.2	91.8	66.6	73.1	94.3	89.8	76.5	85.2	74.1	76.7
April.....	63.7	68.6	90.9	66.9	73.4	94.0	89.6	76.0	85.4	74.4	76.2
May.....	63.7	68.2	91.6	67.5	73.9	93.5	89.5	75.9	85.5	74.2	76.2
June.....	62.4	67.6	92.3	67.3	73.0	93.2	89.5	75.7	85.6	73.8	75.6
July.....	62.6	67.5	92.5	67.6	72.8	93.2	89.7	75.0	85.6	73.4	75.4
August.....	61.0	67.2	92.7	67.8	72.6	93.2	89.6	74.6	85.6	73.3	75.0
September.....	68.7	75.1	98.5	71.7	72.8	94.8	90.9	77.3	86.6	76.6	79.1
October.....	67.1	73.3	104.6	75.5	73.9	95.8	92.8	78.1	87.8	77.6	79.4
November.....	67.3	72.3	104.0	76.4	74.1	96.0	93.0	78.0	88.4	77.0	79.2

The price trend for specified years and months since 1926 is shown in table 3 for the following groups of commodities: Raw materials, semimanufactured articles, finished products, commodities other than farm products, and commodities other than farm products and foods. The list of commodities included under the classifications "raw materials," "semimanufactured articles," and "finished products" was given in the December and Year 1938 issue of the Wholesale Price pamphlet.

TABLE 3.—Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices, by Special Groups of Commodities

[1926=100]

Year and month	Raw materials	Semi-manufactured articles	Finished products	All commodities other than farm products	All commodities other than farm products and foods	Year and month	Raw materials	Semi-manufactured articles	Finished products	All commodities other than farm products	All commodities other than farm products and foods
By years:						By months—Continued.					
1926.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	1939					
1929.....	97.5	93.9	94.5	93.3	91.6	February.....	70.9	74.4	80.2	78.9	80.2
1932.....	55.1	59.3	70.3	68.3	70.2	March.....	70.1	74.6	80.2	79.0	80.4
1933.....	56.5	65.4	70.5	69.0	71.2	April.....	68.5	74.4	80.1	78.8	80.5
1936.....	79.9	75.9	82.0	80.7	79.6	May.....	68.9	74.3	79.9	78.8	80.6
1937.....	84.8	85.3	87.2	86.2	85.3	June.....	67.7	74.1	79.6	78.4	80.2
1938.....	72.0	75.4	82.2	80.6	81.7	July.....	67.8	74.4	79.2	78.1	80.2
By months:						August.....	66.5	74.5	79.1	77.9	80.1
1938:						September.....	72.6	81.8	81.9	81.3	82.1
November.....	71.5	76.2	80.5	79.5	80.6	October.....	72.3	83.1	82.3	82.0	83.8
December.....	70.9	75.2	80.2	79.0	80.3	November.....	72.4	82.1	82.0	81.6	84.0
1939:											
January.....	70.9	74.9	80.0	78.9	80.2						

Weekly Fluctuations

Weekly fluctuations in the major commodity group classifications during October and November are shown by the index numbers in table 4.

TABLE 4.—Weekly Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices by Commodity Groups, October and November 1939

[1926=100]

Commodity group	Nov. 25, 1939	Nov. 18, 1939	Nov. 11, 1939	Nov. 4, 1939	Oct. 28, 1939	Oct. 21, 1939	Oct. 14, 1939	Oct. 7, 1939
All commodities.....	79.0	79.1	79.3	79.3	79.2	79.4	78.9	79.0
Farm products.....	67.6	67.3	67.8	67.5	67.2	67.5	66.7	66.8
Foods.....	72.0	72.3	72.4	72.3	72.3	73.2	72.7	72.9
Hides and leather products.....	104.2	104.3	104.5	104.4	105.5	105.4	105.0	105.2
Textile products.....	75.8	75.6	75.6	75.6	75.2	74.8	74.2	73.8
Fuel and lighting materials.....	74.8	74.8	74.7	74.7	74.6	74.6	74.4	74.8
Metals and metal products.....	96.1	96.1	96.2	96.2	96.3	96.3	95.3	95.1
Building materials.....	92.9	92.9	93.1	93.1	93.0	92.5	92.5	91.8
Chemicals and drugs.....	77.4	77.8	77.9	77.7	77.9	78.0	77.6	77.9
Housefurnishing goods.....	90.0	89.7	89.7	89.6	89.3	89.2	89.2	89.1
Miscellaneous.....	78.2	78.2	78.2	77.9	77.4	77.2	77.0	77.1
Raw materials.....	72.3	72.2	72.5	72.3	72.1	72.2	71.6	71.7
Semimanufactured articles.....	81.9	82.0	82.1	81.9	82.9	83.6	83.6	83.5
Finished products.....	82.3	82.5	82.7	82.6	82.5	82.8	82.2	82.3
All commodities other than farm products.....	81.6	81.7	81.9	81.9	81.9	82.1	81.6	81.7
All commodities other than farm products and foods.....	84.4	84.4	84.4	84.4	84.2	84.1	83.7	83.7

Recent Publications of Labor Interest

DECEMBER 1939

Agriculture

The place of agricultural labor in society. By Paul S. Taylor. San Francisco, U. S. Farm Security Administration, 1939. 11 pp.; mimeographed.

Paper read before 12th annual meeting of Western Farm Economics Association, June 15, 1939, discussing the emergence of a distinct class of farm laborers without opportunity to rise, and the basis of a proposed extension of social-security legislation to cover hired farm workers on farms employing not less than a prescribed amount of hired labor.

Grapes, raisins, and wines. Washington, U. S. Tariff Commission, 1939. 408 pp., charts, illus. (Report No. 134, second series.)

Six pages of the report deal with labor problems in the grape areas of California.

Revolution in land. By Charles Abrams. New York, Harper & Bros., 1939. 320 pp.

A study of the transformation in the position of American land, showing the shift from a position of dominance to one in which Government aid is required. Deals with housing as well.

Consumer Problems

Consumer credit and economic stability. By Rolf Nugent. New York, Russell Sage Foundation, 1939. 420 pp., charts.

Contains a historical account of the development of consumer credit, including descriptions of the various types of consumer-credit agencies, and a discussion of credit as related to national economic policy; estimates of receivables of retail merchants in various lines of business, of service creditors, and of intermediary financing agencies; and estimates of loan balances of cash-lending agencies. Included in this last section are commercial banks, credit unions, pawnbrokers, small-loan companies, and unregulated lenders.

The consumer movement. By Kenneth Dameron. (In Harvard Business Review, New York, Volume XVII, No. 3, 1939, pp. 271-289.)

Materials for consumer education—a selected bibliography. Washington, U. S. Agricultural Adjustment Administration, Consumers' Counsel Division, 1939. 21 pp. (CS-61, revised.)

The worker as a consumer. By Helen Norton and Mark Starr. New York, International Ladies' Garment Workers' Union, 1938. 36 pp., bibliography; mimeographed.

Cooperative Movement

Consumers' cooperatives in 1938. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1939. 16 pp. (Serial No. R. 1001, reprint from September 1939 Monthly Labor Review.)

Farmers' and consumer cooperation. Stockholm, Kooperativa Förbundets, 1938. 16 pp. (In English.)

A discussion of the ways in which farmers' and consumers' cooperatives can work together, and a description of instances of joint action in Sweden.

Farmers' retail petroleum associations. By Joseph G. Knapp and French M. Hyre. Washington, U. S. Farm Credit Administration, Cooperative Research and Service Division, 1939. 20 pp., charts, illus. (Circular No. C-113.)

Based upon data collected in a general survey of farmers' cooperatives, covering 1936 (Farm Credit Administration Bulletin No. 26).

Cooperative farm supply purchasing in British Isles. By Joseph G. Knapp. Washington, U. S. Farm Credit Administration, Cooperative Research and Service Division, 1939. 86 pp., bibliography, charts, illus. (Bulletin No. 31.)

Results of a first-hand study of this little-known phase of British cooperation, giving data on the legal status of farmers' purchasing cooperatives, and statistics on their operations in England, Wales, Scotland, Eire, and Northern Ireland.

Labor policies of consumers' cooperatives in Great Britain and the United States. By Glenn Wasson Miller. Urbana, Ill., [University of Illinois?], 1939. 10 pp.

Summary of a detailed study, comparing cooperative policies with regard to collective bargaining, wages, and working conditions.

How Swedish cooperatives break monopolies. New York, Cooperative League, [1939?]. 15 pp.

Economic and Social Problems

American social problems: An introduction to the study of the people and their dilemmas. By Howard W. Odum. New York, Henry Holt and Co., 1939. 549 pp., illus.

The main part of the volume describes contemporary society. A section of about 80 pages gives bibliographical and other suggestions for further study, described by the author as "a realistic framework of inquiry."

Business cycles: A theoretical, historical, and statistical analysis of the capitalist process. By Joseph A. Schumpeter. New York, McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1939. In 2 volumes; 1095 pp., charts.

A theoretical approach with historical and statistical data in support of the author's interpretations.

Government expansion in the economic sphere. Edited by Arthur G. Coons. (In Annals of American Academy of Political and Social Science, Volume 206, Philadelphia, November 1939, pp. 1-170.)

The papers presented in this symposium include: The changing economic functions of government; The framework for the use of labor; Protection of the consumer; Government's responsibility for economic security; Government regulation of industry; Government control of prices; Social control of production.

Race relations and the race problem—a definition and an analysis. Edited by Edgar T. Thompson. Durham, N. C., Duke University Press, 1939. xv, 338 pp., bibliography.

In this collection of 10 contributions, by various scholars, two are of special labor interest: Competition and the racial division of labor; Race relations and social change.

Society in transition: Problems of a changing age. By Harry Elmer Barnes. New York, Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1939. 999 pp., bibliography.

In the opinion of the author, various major social problems of today are the result of the tremendous discrepancy between our mechanical advancement and our social development. The book deals with many aspects of the following subjects: The historical background of our transitional age; the physical and economic bases of our social problems; and social wreckage.

Law and politics: Occasional papers of Felix Frankfurter, 1913-1938. Edited by Archibald MacLeish and E. F. Prichard, Jr. New York, Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1939. xxiv, 352 pp.

The foreword by Mr. MacLeish describes the influences that shaped Mr. Frankfurter's thinking and quality of mind in the direction of an effort "to reconcile modern economic forces with the demands of a popular democracy." The papers bearing particularly on labor interests include five on labor and the courts, one on administrative law, one on America and the immigrant, one on the Sacco-Vanzetti case, and one on social issues before the Supreme Court.

Principles of economics. By F. W. Taussig. New York, Macmillan Co., 1939. 2 volumes, 547 and 595 pp. 4th edition.

The main changes in this edition are in Book 3, Money and banking, and Book 5, The distribution of wealth, the latter section containing discussions of inequality and a number of other topics in addition to the usual analysis of wages, profits, interest, etc. Book 6, Labor, includes discussions of recent public policies affecting wage earners.

Education and Guidance

Annotated bibliography on adult education. Los Angeles, California Department of Education, Division of Adult and Continuation Education, 1938. 2 vols., 290 and 416 pp.; mimeographed.

Lists a total of 3,054 items covering books, pamphlets, and periodical references.

The church and adult education. By Bernard E. Meland. New York, American Association for Adult Education, 1939. 114 pp. (Studies in social significance of adult education in United States, No. 16.)

The results of the author's efforts to get glimpses here and there throughout the United States of adult-education activities of the churches and synagogues.

Labor and education: A brief outline of resolutions and pronouncements of American Federation of Labor in support of the general principles and practices of education from 1881-1938. Washington, American Federation of Labor, 1939. 77 pp.

The future of industrial education in the United States. By Joseph Charles Park. (In *Industrial Education Magazine*, Peoria, Ill., November 1939, pp. 252-258.)

Review of industrial education for the biennium 1938-1939. By William Thomas Bawden. (In *Industrial Education Magazine*, Peoria, Ill., November 1939, pp. 237-251.)

Vocational guidance bibliography. Compiled by Ann Tanneyhill. New York, National Urban League, March 1939. 29 pp.; mimeographed. 8th ed.

Health and Industrial Hygiene

Health program of International Ladies' Garment Workers' Union. By Leo Price, M. D., Assistant Director, Union Health Center. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1939. 19 pp. (Serial No. R. 1009, reprint from October 1939 *Monthly Labor Review*.)

Legal aspects of corporate medical practice, with special emphasis on maintenance of medical departments by industrial corporations. By I. H. Rubenstein. (Reprint of article on "The maintenance of an industrial medical department—as corporate practice of medicine," *Industrial Medicine*, Chicago, October 1939, pp. 410-416.)

The article deals with the power of an industrial corporation under its corporate charter to provide medical and surgical care for its employees, the effect of the provisions of workmen's compensation acts which require employers to furnish such services for injured employees, and the interpretation of the several medical-practice acts by the courts as to what constitutes the unlawful corporate practice of medicine.

Industrial hygiene number, Canadian Public Health Journal. Toronto, November 1939, pp. 517-560.

Twelve short articles on industrial hygiene problems and industrial medical care.

Occupational health hazards in Massachusetts industries: I, Lead storage battery manufacture; II, Paint and varnish manufacture; III, Shoe manufacture; IV, Wood heel covering; V, Woolen and worsted goods manufacture; VI, Fur cleaning. Boston, Department of Labor and Industries, Division of Occupational Hygiene, 1937 and 1938. 6 pamphlets; various paging.

These studies describe working conditions in the industries listed and make recommendations for the removal of the various hazards found in the plants surveyed.

Harmful substances cause disability in 2,366 cases [in New York] in 1938. (In Industrial Bulletin, New York State Department of Labor, Albany, October 1939, p. 347.)

The 2,366 cases reported upon included 27 deaths and 28 permanent total disabilities. The time lost for the total number of cases amounted to 89,876 weeks and the compensation to \$747,791. A tabulation shows, by substance and by type of disability, the number and cost of these compensated disabilities due to harmful substances.

Chronic exposure to benzene (benzol): I, *The industrial aspects*, by Manfred Bowditch and Hervey B. Elkins; II, *The clinical effects*, by Francis T. Hunter; III, *The pathologic results*, by Tracy B. Mallory, Edward A. Gall, William J. Brickley. (In Journal of Industrial Hygiene and Toxicology, Baltimore, October 1939, pp. 321-393; bibliography, illus.)

The papers cover conditions in regard to exposure to benzene and benzene poisoning in several industrial plants.

Lead poisoning. By V. A. Gant. Chicago, Industrial Health Book Co., 1939. 100 pp., bibliography.

The author describes methods by which lead is absorbed and deposited in the body, and a method of chemical analysis of body tissues and fluids, and discusses the postmortem findings of the coroner's office in Cook County, Ill., in fatal cases of suspected lead poisoning, and the diagnosis and treatment of lead poisoning,

Housing

Public housing in America. Compiled by M. B. Schnapper. New York, H. W. Wilson Co., 1939. 369 pp., bibliographies. (The Reference Shelf, Vol. 13, No. 5.)

Symposium of papers on a wide variety of housing subjects, arranged in three groups—general, affirmative, and negative.

The no-man's land in housing. Washington, Washington Housing Association, 1939. 29 pp.; mimeographed.

Proceedings of the second conference on housing for families having incomes of \$1,100 to \$2,000.

Self-help cooperative housing. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1939. 12 pp. (Serial No. R. 999, reprint from September 1939 Monthly Labor Review.)

Cooperative housing in Sweden. By Ulla Alm. New York, Royal Swedish Commission to New York World's Fair, 1939. 75 pp., illus.

Housing laws of Germany: Original laws enacted during years 1932-1933 inclusive, with amendments and supplemental provisions. New York, New York City Housing Authority, 1939. 38 pp.; mimeographed. (New York City Works Progress Administration, Division of Foreign Housing Studies, Legislative series I, issue No. 2.)

Housing laws of the Netherlands: The original housing law with amendments and supplemental provisions. New York, New York City Housing Authority, 1939. 138 pp.; mimeographed. (New York City Work Projects Administration, Division of Foreign Housing Studies, Legislative series II, issue No. 1.)

How to economize in buying land for your home. Suffern, N. Y., School of Living, 1938. 15 pp., illus. (Homestead bulletin No. 3.)

How to economize in planning your home. Suffern, N. Y., School of Living, 1939. 20 pp., plans, illus. (Homestead bulletin No. 1.)

Labor and unit costs in PWA low-rent housing. By Herman B. Byer and Clarence A. Trump. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1939. 9 pp. (Serial No. R. 998, reprint from September 1939 Monthly Labor Review.)

Industrial Accidents and Accident Prevention

Industrial injuries in the United States during 1938. By Max D. Kossoris and Swen Kjaer. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1939. 16 pp. (Serial No. R. 1011, reprint from October 1939 Monthly Labor Review.)

Causes and prevention of accidents in construction industry, 1938. By Max D. Kossoris and Swen Kjaer. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1939. 16 pp. (Serial No. R. 1003, reprint from September 1939 Monthly Labor Review.)

Coal-mine accidents in the United States, 1936. By W. W. Adams, L. E. Geyer, M. G. Parry. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Mines, 1939. 128 pp. (Bulletin 420.)

Metal-mine accidents in the United States, 1936. By W. W. Adams and M. E. Kolhos. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Mines, 1939. 53 pp. (Bulletin 422.)

Formation, collection, and treatment of coal dust in mines. By D. Harrington. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Mines, 1939. 11 pp.; mimeographed. (Information circular 7089.)

Discussion of coal-mining methods and other conditions which cause or limit dust formation in mines, and measures used to minimize the harmful effects of the dust.

Methods of rock-dusting American coal mines. By J. J. Forbes. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Mines, 1939. 22 pp.; mimeographed. (Report of investigations, 3465.)

The report gives the State mine-law requirements for rock-dusting and watering, and shows the progress in rock-dusting in different areas and the methods followed.

Industrial Relations

Bituminous coal stoppage, 1939. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1939. 13 pp. (Serial No. R. 995, reprint from September 1939 Monthly Labor Review.)

Towards industrial peace in steel. By Philip Murray. (In Labor Information Bulletin, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, Washington, November 1939, pp. 1-5; illus.)

Labor policy under democracy. By Clay Packer Malick. Boulder, Colo., 1939. 130 pp. (University of Colorado studies, Series C, Studies in the social sciences, Vol. 1, No. 1.)

Defending the principle of collective bargaining, the author draws on the experience of several countries, with public machinery for settling labor disputes, to show its effectiveness. The arbitration and conciliation set-up in Great Britain, the labor law in Weimar, Germany, the compulsory arbitration systems in Australasia, and the old and new labor laws in the United States, are described.

Labor and Social Legislation

Federal labor legislation, 1939. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1939. 5 pp. (Serial No. R. 994, reprint from September 1939 Monthly Labor Review.)

The administration of the Fair Labor Standards Act in the United States. By Elmer F. Andrews. (In International Labor Review, Geneva, November 1939, pp. 616-640.)

In this article the administrator of the Fair Labor Standards Act during the first months of its operation discusses the provisions of the act and the problems that have arisen in its administration.

Legislation affecting labor relations, 1939. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1939. 5 pp. (Serial No. R. 1012, reprint from October 1939 Monthly Labor Review.)

Social change and labor law. By Malcolm Sharp and Charles O. Gregory. Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1939. 175 pp.

Part 2, on government control of labor disputes, deals with the common law in State and Federal courts and with State and Federal legislation before and since 1932.

Wage rate laws on public works. Washington, U. S. Public Works Administration, 1939. 227 pp.

In addition to Federal, State, and Territorial legislation pertaining to wages on public works, the volume contains pertinent court decisions, and opinions of the Attorney General and Comptroller General of the United States and of the State attorneys general.

State railroad laws relating to full crew, qualifications of personnel, train lengths, September 1, 1939. [Cleveland?], Brotherhood of Locomotive Firemen and Enginemen, 1939. 46 pp.

Labor Organization and Activities

Labor and democracy. By William Green. Princeton, N. J., Princeton University Press, 1939. 194 pp.

The President of the American Federation of Labor outlines the struggle of organized labor to establish itself as a free and recognized factor in industry. Incidents from the career of the author are interspersed with discussions of the policies of the A. F. of L. in regard to collective bargaining, social security, and labor legislation. He concludes with the following statement: "The American labor movement, with all its shortcomings and imperfections, is the keystone of democracy in our national life."

Labor's right to organize. By William M. Leiserson. Minneapolis, 1939. 23 pp. (University of Minnesota day and hour series, No. 22.)

Report of proceedings of fifty-ninth annual convention of American Federation of Labor, held at Cincinnati, Ohio, October 2-13, inclusive, 1939. Washington, American Federation of Labor, 1939. xxxii, 709 pp.

A brief account of the proceedings of the convention was published in the November 1939 Monthly Labor Review (p. 1130).

Eighth Ordinary International Trade Union Congress, Zürich, July 5-8, 1939. (In International Trade Union Movement, Paris, June-July 1939, pp. 188-212.)

Trade union facts. Prepared by Labor Research Association. New York, International Publishers, 1939. 124 pp.

Lists unions affiliated with American Federation of Labor and Congress of Industrial Organizations, with their membership, and gives data on union membership of particular classes of workers—railroad, white-collar, Negro, woman; collective bargaining; cultural activities of unions; and other subjects.

Directory of labor organizations—A. F. L., C. I. O., and independent unions. (Special supplement to Labor Relations Reporter, Bureau of National Affairs, Inc., Washington, November 27, 1939; 4 pp.)

Migration and Migratory Labor

The migrants: I, Recent migration to the Pacific Coast. By Davis McEntire and N. L. Whetten. (In Land Policy Review, U. S. Bureau of Agricultural Economics, Washington, September-October 1939, pp. 7-17; charts.)

First of a series of 5 articles, to be published in the Land Policy Review, dealing with migration to the Pacific Coast. The study on which the articles are based represents the first attempt that has been made to date, according to the authors, to treat the movement and its implications as a whole. The present article consists largely of a preliminary analysis of the total number of children from migrant families that filled out the school-survey questionnaire.

The drought farmer adjusts to the West. By Richard Wakefield and Paul H. Landis. Pullman, State College of Washington, Agricultural Experiment Station, 1939. 56 pp. (Bulletin No. 378; Series in rural population, No. 4.)

Analyzes the social and economic characteristics of drought settlers, motivating forces in drought migration, problems involved in the economic and social adjustment of these migrants in the West, and their opportunities in their new environment.

What we are doing for the interstate migrant. Address by Carey McWilliams before Western Conference on Governmental Problems, San Francisco, October 27, 1939. Los Angeles, State Department of Industrial Relations, Division of Immigration and Housing, 1939. 12 pp., bibliography; mimeographed.

This address by the head of the California Division of Immigration and Housing considers what can be done about the interstate migrant, rather than what is being done, in California. What can be done, he states, depends largely upon "what direct assistance can be obtained from the Federal Government and what indirect assistance can be obtained from the other States affected."

Economic factors in Negro migration—past and future. By Robert C. Weaver. (In Social Forces, Chapel Hill, N. C., October 1939, pp. 90-101.)

Includes data on Negro wages, occupational opportunities, and unemployment relief.

Minimum Wage

Analysis of 1939 State minimum-wage orders. Washington, U. S. Women's Bureau, November 1, 1939. 23 pp.; mimeographed. (Supplement to Bulletin 167.)

State minimum-wage budgets for women workers living alone. Washington, U. S. Women's Bureau, October 1939. 16 pp.; mimeographed.

Report of Industrial Commissioner to Restaurant Minimum Wage Board relating to wages and other conditions of employment of women and minors in restaurant industry, New York State. New York, Department of Labor, Division of Women in Industry and Minimum Wage, 1939. 2 vols.; mimeographed.

Prices and Price Control

Changes in retail prices of electricity, 1923-38. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1939. 79 pp. (Bulletin No. 664.)

The Chicago cleaning and dyeing industry, a case study in "controlled" competition. By Morrison Handsaker. Chicago, University of Chicago Libraries, 1939. 66 pp., bibliography.

The author found that the most far-reaching price-control plans developed under private auspices in this industry were those of two associations in Chicago, and therefore his report is devoted mainly to those plans, although private plans in other cities, as well as governmental price fixing under the N. R. A. cleaning code, are reviewed briefly. The examination of the price-control features of the industry is preceded by a short discussion of the basic characteristics of the industry, which, the writer states, "on the one hand give rise to the desire of many producers to establish price-control plans, and on the other contribute to the instability of these plans."

Price fixing by government in the United States, 1926-1939. A selected list of references on direct price fixing of agricultural products by Federal and State Governments. Compiled by Louise O. Bercaw. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Agricultural Economics, July 1939. 214 pp.; mimeographed. (Agricultural economics bibliography No. 79.)

Banco de México: Decimaseptima asamblea general ordinaria de accionistas. México, D. F., Banco de México, S. A., 1939. 72 pp., charts.

This report of the seventeenth regular general meeting of the shareholders of the Bank of Mexico includes index numbers of wholesale prices and of the cost of living (based on 16 articles) in the city of Mexico, by months, from January 1935 and September 1934, respectively, through 1938.

Technological Changes and Productivity of Labor

Changes in farm power and equipment: Field implements. By Eugene G. McKibben, John A. Hopkins, and R. Austin Griffin. Washington, U. S. Work Projects Administration, 1939. 111 pp., charts, illus. (Studies of changing techniques and employment in agriculture, National Research Project, Report No. A-11.)

The study covers 26 major implements classified as primary tillage implements, secondary tillage implements, seeding and planting machines, cultivating equipment, and harvesting equipment. Most of these were already in use in 1909, the first year of the survey. The main changes have been in the size and speed of operation and in the substitution of tractors for horses. Adoption of improved implements has not necessarily increased the investment of farmers in implements and machinery. The extent of use of improved implements and their effects on labor productivity are shown statistically by regions insofar as available information permits.

Changes in machinery and job requirements in Minnesota manufacturing, 1931-36. By Charles A. Koepke. Washington, U. S. Work Projects Administration, 1939. 62 pp. (Studies of effects of industrial change on labor markets, National Research Project, Report No. L-6.)

An effort was made to discover the extent of technological changes and the effects of these changes on types of skill in the Minneapolis-St. Paul area. It was found that there were few outstanding or spectacular technological changes but that continuous day-to-day changes were extremely important in their

cumulative effect. The changes were mostly minor improvements in old machines designed to make the machines more automatic, more specialized, or more flexible. An outstanding effect was a reduction of the proportion of both skilled and unskilled workers and an increase in the proportion of semiskilled workers. The instability of employment was indicated by the fact that between 1931 and 1936 the proportions of workers who shifted from one industry to another ranged, in the 14 industries covered in respect to the shifting of workers, from 21 percent in printing to 61 percent in the making of shoes.

Technology, employment, and output per man in petroleum and natural-gas production. By O. E. Kiessling, H. O. Rogers, and others. Washington, U. S. Work Projects Administration, 1939. xxvii, 349 pp., charts, illus. (Mineral technology and output per man studies, National Research Project, Report No. E-10.)

The more important labor data obtained in this survey were summarized in an article in the July 1939 Monthly Labor Review (p. 39).

Onderzoek naar het verloop der arbeidsproductiviteit. The Hague, Centraal Bureau voor de Statistiek, 1939. 132 pp., charts.

Results of an investigation of productivity of labor in various industries in the Netherlands from 1925 to 1937, inclusive, with tables showing variations in productivity by time periods and industries. The report is in Dutch with a brief résumé in French.

Unemployment Insurance and Relief

Unemployment relief and the unemployed in the San Francisco Bay region, 1929-1934. By Emily H. Huntington. Berkeley, University of California, Heller Committee for Research in Social Economics, 1939. 106 pp.

The survey had a three-fold purpose: To investigate the effect of unemployment on the relief rolls of the areas covered from 1929 to 1934; to study the families receiving relief in these areas at the close of 1929 and 1932; and to follow the history of the families who applied for unemployment relief in 1932 and review their economic condition from that date to the close of 1934.

Unemployment relief in labor disputes: A study of policies and actions of California State Relief Administration from 1935 to 1939 regarding aid to persons engaged in labor disputes. By Leigh Athearn. Los Angeles, California, State Relief Administration, 1939. 40 pp.; mimeographed.

Workers on relief. By Grace Adams. New Haven, Yale University Press, 1939. 344 pp., illus.

Study of WPA workers from the psychological standpoint.

Railroad unemployment insurance. By Solomon Kuznets. (In Social Security Bulletin, U. S. Social Security Board, Washington, October 1939, pp. 19-26.)

Analysis of provisions of and procedure under the Railroad Unemployment Insurance Act of 1938, as amended June 20, 1939, with statistics covering substantially the first quarter of operations under the Act.

The case against experience rating in unemployment compensation. By Richard A. Lester and Charles W. Kidd. New York, Industrial Relations Counselors Inc., 1939. 59 pp., bibliography.

The authors conclude that experience rating in unemployment compensation has economically and socially undesirable results and that it must be judged unsound on theoretical as well as practical grounds.

Analytical guide to decisions by the umpire respecting claims for [unemployment insurance] benefit, Great Britain: Part III, Disqualifications for receipt of benefit—employment lost through trade dispute. London, Ministry of Labor, 1939. 42 pp.

Provisions of the Unemployment Insurance Acts relating to unemployment arising from trade disputes and stoppages of work, and analyses of decisions of the umpire on claims for benefit for unemployment from these causes.

Wages and Hours of Labor

Hours and earnings in manufacturing industries, 1932 to 1939. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1939. 4 pp. (Serial No. R. 1020, reprint from December 1939 Monthly Labor Review.)

Data by month from January 1932 to August 1939. Figures for later months will appear in the regular monthly reports on employment and pay rolls issued by the Bureau of Labor Statistics.

- Union scales of wages and hours in the building trades, June 1, 1939.* By Frank S. McElroy. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1939. 24 pp., chart. (Serial No. R. 1034, reprint from November 1939 Monthly Labor Review.)
- Hourly wage rates for W. P. A. and for private and other public construction, 1938—selected occupations.* Washington, U. S. Work Projects Administration, 1939. v, 144 pp.; processed.
- Annual earnings in manufacture of electrical products, 1936.* Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1939. 12 pp. (Serial No. R. 1015, reprint from October 1939 Monthly Labor Review.)
- Hourly earnings in knit-goods industries (other than hosiery), September 1938.* By H. E. Riley and Jacob Perlman. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1939. 30 pp. (Serial No. R. 1033, reprint from November 1939 Monthly Labor Review.)
- Earnings and hours in meat-packing industry, December 1937.* By J. Perlman, E. B. Morris, H. O. Rogers. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1939. 31 pp. (Serial No. R. 1016, reprint from October 1939 Monthly Labor Review.)
- Shift schedules in continuous-process industries, including effects of Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938 upon such schedules.* Palo Alto, Calif., Stanford University, Graduate School of Business, Division of Industrial Relations, 1939. 26 pp. (Study No. 2.)

Wartime Industrial and Labor Problems

- Industrial mobilization plan, revision of 1939: A study of methods for effective and equitable utilization of industrial resources of the United States in time of war.* Washington, [Army and Navy Munitions Board], 1939. 18 pp., bibliography. (S. Doc. No. 134, 76th Cong., 2d sess.)
- Mobilizing industry for war.* By H. K. Rutherford. (In Harvard Business Review, Vol. XVIII, No. 1, New York, Autumn 1939, pp. 1-10.)
- A summary of proposed plans, written by the secretary of the recent War Resources Board, which was formulated as a civilian advisory committee to the Army and Navy Munitions Board.
- Economic factors affecting industrial relations policy in the war period.* By Sumner H. Slichter. New York, Industrial Relations Counselors, Inc., 1939. 31 pp. (Industrial relations monograph No. 3.)
- Labor problems in time of war.* (In International Labor Review, Geneva, November 1939, pp. 589-615.)
- General discussion of employment, unemployment and vocational education; contracts of service; hours of work and rest periods; employment of women and children; industrial medicine; accident prevention; labor inspection; social insurance; wages; nutrition; housing; agricultural workers; protection of seamen; native labor; and collaboration between public authorities and employers' and workers' organizations.
- The war and American jobs.* By Charles E. Bowerman. Chicago, Science Research Associates, 1939. 48 pp. (Occupational monograph 10.)
- Social legislation in wartime.* (In International Labor Review, Geneva, November 1939, pp. 641-687.)

Under this general head, the International Labor Office presents the first of a series of monthly surveys which it plans to publish on legislative action taken in different countries to deal with wartime labor problems. The present survey gives information on regulation of employment in France and Great Britain; military service and contracts of employment in France, Germany, Great Britain, and Poland; measures affecting hours of work in Belgium, France, Germany, Great Britain, and Hungary, and affecting rest periods in France, Germany, and Great Britain; allowances for families of mobilized men in France, Germany, Great Britain, and Switzerland.

Wealth, welfare, or war: The changing role of economics in national policy. By M. J. Bonn. Paris, League of Nations, International Institute of Intellectual Co-operation, 1939. 50 pp.

Considers the historical and theoretical basis of a publicly planned and directed control of society for the maintenance of wealth and welfare as well as for the carrying on of war.

Women in Industry

Experience as to standards for women's work in periods of rapid increases in production. Washington, U. S. Women's Bureau, October 1939. 16 pp.; mimeographed.

Data on increase in employment of women, 1914 to 1918; efforts to maintain labor standards for women, 1917-18; relaxation of State labor standards for women, 1917-18; ill effects of relaxation of standards; and progress in establishing standards for women's work between 1918 and 1939.

Standards for employment of women in industry. Washington, U. S. Women's Bureau, 1939. 9 pp. (Bulletin No. 173.)

The law and women's work: A contribution to the study of the status of women. Geneva, International Labor Office (American branch, 734 Jackson Place NW., Washington), 1939. xii, 590 pp. (Studies and reports, Series I, No. 4.)

The topics covered include hours of work, night work, wage regulation, regulation of right to employment, regulation of employment on unhealthy or dangerous work, differential treatment of women under social-insurance schemes, and legal position of women as professional workers.

Betänkande angående gift kvinnas förvärsarbete. Stockholm, Kvinnoarbetskommittén, 1938. 496 pp. (Finansdepartementet, Statens offentliga utredningar 1938, 47.)

A report on married women in gainful occupations in Sweden, covering their position in regard to employment opportunities, working conditions, and wages; variation in wage determinations for women and men; relative efficiency of men and women; measures for improving working conditions for women; employment service for woman wage earners; family wages; and working conditions of women in other countries.

General Reports

Ohio manufacturing, trade, wages, in graphs. Columbus, Ohio State University, Bureau of Business Research, 1939. 48 pp. (Ohio graph series.)

The condition of the workers in Great Britain, Germany, and the Soviet Union, 1932-1938. By Jürgen Kuczynski. London, Victor Gollancz Ltd., 1939. 92 pp.

In part 1 the author considers the situation of the workers in Great Britain and Germany as regards wages, working hours, productivity, unemployment, social insurance, and other matters; in the second part, he attempts to show the differences in food and clothing standards, social insurance, rights and liberties, etc., as between the Soviet Union on the one hand and Great Britain and Germany on the other.

Statistical report on prices, wage rates and hours of labor, unemployment, industrial accidents, etc., in New Zealand, 1937, with a statistical summary for the Dominion from 1887 to 1937. Wellington, Census and Statistics Department, 1939. xliii, 132 pp.

Includes a section showing the methods employed in establishing new series of index numbers covering retail and wholesale prices, wages, and hours.

Statistisk årbok for Norge, 1939. Oslo, Statistiske Centralbyrå, 1939. 344 pp. (In Norwegian and French.)

Statistical yearbook of Norway, including data on social insurance, prices, cost of living, cooperative societies, employment, unemployment, employment service; wages and salaries, working hours, industrial disputes, and labor unions.

Statistisk årsbok för Sverige, 1939. Stockholm, Statistiska Centralbyrån, 1939. 415 pp.

This statistical year book for Sweden for 1939 contains, among other information, data on prices, cost of living, cooperative movement, housing, employment and unemployment, employment service, labor agreements, wages and salaries, public relief, protection of children, and social insurance. The volume is in Swedish with French translations of table of contents, table heads, and some footnotes to tables.

Public education and economic trends. By T. L. Norton. Cambridge, Mass., Harvard University, Graduate School of Education, 1939. 196 pp.

A collection of 6 lectures dealing, respectively, with the following subjects: The nature of the modern economy, population trends, the shifting pattern of consumers' wants, the progress of technology, the changing character of employment opportunities, and the mobility of labor. The importance of education for consumption and for production is stressed.